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A PLAN FOR THE REORGANIZATION OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL¹

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In his inaugural address last year Assistant Superintendent W. J. S. Bryan, of St. Louis, pointed out the necessity for an investigation of "experiments in secondary schools involving changes in the schedules of day and year; and in groups of years to form intermediate schools, or junior high schools, of grades seven, eight, nine, and ten, and senior high schools of grades eleven and twelve, and the freshman and sophomore years in college; and to suggest measures to be taken for the evaluation of subjects of the secondary curriculum." Accordingly a committee was appointed to investigate these matters and report at this meeting. This committee was composed of Principal George T. Buck, of Shortridge High School, Indianapolis; Principal Chester B. Curtis, of the Central High School, St. Louis, and myself. Your committee early decided that it would be unable to report in a satisfactory manner on all of the suggestions made by your president, owing to the lack of time and the importance and magnitude of the problems suggested. Consequently we have concentrated our efforts on the subjects of junior and senior high schools, together with the upward extension of high schools to include the freshman and sophomore years

¹ A committee report read at the meeting of the North Central Association, Chicago, March 20, 1914.

of college work, and the establishment of departmental teaching in the seventh and eighth grades. We have felt that no mere catalogue of the schools which have introduced one or more of these departures would be satisfactory. We have, therefore, to some extent gone into the reasons for the changes in arrangements suggested above, together with the results obtained, and have had the temerity to make recommendations for future action by the body.

The most conspicuous example of success of any experiment in our educational history during the last decade has been the American public school when measured by adaptability to environment, educational results attained, and popularity among its constituents. During the last decade high-school enrolment has increased nearly 100 per cent. The teaching corps has kept pace with the enrolment and the material equipment has met the demands put upon it. During the same period of time the common-school enrolment has kept pace merely with general increase in population. During the past year in the city of Chicago two high schools were opened to the public which represented an expense for grounds, buildings, and equipment of substantially \$1,000,000 each. Their salary schedules are approximately \$100,000 per year each. To produce this revenue would require a productive endowment of \$2,000,000 at 5 per cent. The figures are astounding, particularly when we realize that not more than three institutions of higher education in the great state of Illinois have either material equipment or productive endowment to equal them. The public is not niggardly when the high schools are concerned. The high schools receive this evidence of confidence because of work well done. Their popularity and the confidence of the public which they possess are accounted for, we believe, by the fact that the organization and methods of instruction and discipline have been responsive to the demands and necessities of a changing society. There have been, to be sure, other contributing causes, but these are the controlling ones.

The methods of organization and instruction seem susceptible of further adjustment to meet the great educational problems of this democracy of ours. In proof of the ease of successful adjustment may be cited the fact that many of the school systems in the

country have adopted in the seventh and eighth grades departmental teaching and promotion by subject, which is typical of the secondary-school period as contrasted with that of the elementary schools. This system was introduced in the grades because of the belief that the more mature pupils should be separated from the less advanced; that expert teachers could be secured who would present the subject-matter in a more intelligent and thorough manner; that a group-consciousness would be formed, and that the pupils would come in contact with a greater number of mature minds. Furthermore, it was hoped that the great student mortality between grades six and eight would be reduced and the great change that inevitably ensues when a pupil leaves the grades for the high school would be minimized. In the beginning of this movement the subject-matter of instruction was substantially the same as it had been before the movement was inaugurated, but gradually in many of these schools a change has been effected until now there is not only a difference in organization, but also a change in subject-matter. They have gradually become junior high schools. As a typical case of this development may be cited the seventh and eighth grades of the East Aurora, Illinois, school, where now there is a promotion by subject rather than by grades, departmental teaching by well-trained experts in the fundamental subjects of English, history, arithmetic, and science. There, also, the pupils have some freedom of election, in that they have a choice between two foreign languages, and between manual training and domestic science. While the departmental teaching in the seventh and eighth grades has accomplished much and has overcome many difficulties, all has not been accomplished that has been hoped for. The traditional feeling that the object of instruction in the grades is for the purpose of training for literacy, of giving the control of the means of education, has still persisted and many of the defects of the older system have remained.

There has been a decided feeling among educators for some time that a rearrangement of our whole public-school system is desirable and inevitable. Our administrative division of schools into grades, extending from the sixth to the fourteenth year; of the high school from the fourteenth to the eighteenth year; and

of the college from the eighteenth to the twenty-second year; and of the university between the twenty-second and the twenty-sixth or -seventh years, is not only undesirable but illogical and based on the accidents of history. This is the only great modern nation that has such a division. England, Germany, France, and now Japan, have adopted a system more nearly in keeping with the psychological needs of the growing child. In these countries the secondary period of instruction ends at the age of eighteen, leaving the student free to begin pursuit of his university preparation at the age of eighteen rather than at twenty-two, as in our country. Attempts have been made in a great many school systems to remedy this defect in organization by decreasing the time given to elementary education and increasing the secondary-school period. The grade-school courses have been expanding. Many new subjects have been introduced into the curriculum. This has led to more superficial and less thorough work. The work in the elementary schools has needed systematizing. (a) This systematizing can more easily be brought about, perhaps, by reducing the time-allotment for the work. (b) This systematizing of the grade work will tend to increase the standard of instruction. An earlier change from primary to secondary instruction would react favorably on the lower schools, as has been adequately proved by our whole educational experience. The effect of standards established by the universities, colleges, and high schools on the schools below them adequately proves this point. (c) The removal of the older pupils of the seventh and eighth grades from contact with the younger reacts in a desirable way on both. The older pupils mature earlier and the younger ones, being more nearly of the same intellectual and social plane, develop in a more normal manner. (d) The pupils in early adolescence, who need greater freedom of discipline and instruction, who are beginning to look forward to definite life-work, are segregated so that they develop a social consciousness and individual initiative. This break under the present system comes in the middle of the restless period of adolescence, a most unfortunate time. (e) An earlier acquaintance with many of the subjects in the secondary-school curriculum would tend to produce better and more satisfactory results. For example, it is

generally conceded that instruction in language should begin not later than the twelfth year; instruction in elementary algebra and geometry might easily and profitably begin at this age; and so with science and English literature and composition and history. (f) If the present freshman year should be set apart with the seventh and eighth grades, the upper three years of the high school might, and doubtless would, do a more thorough and advanced type of work than they do now. (g) The break between the grades and the high school is too abrupt. Passing from the strict oversight of the one-teacher, one-room plan, with its rigid rules and prescriptions, to the freedom of action of the high school has led to an appalling student mortality. A more gradual change would doubtless relieve this situation.

These attempts at readjustment have taken several very definite forms owing to local conditions. Many schools have been established having six years devoted to the elementary school, two to a junior high school, retaining the present organization of four years for the senior high school. This type is called the 6-2-4 plan. Others have established six-year high schools to be added to their six-year elementary schools. This type is called the 6-6 plan. Some have reorganized their administrative system to cover the elementary-school work in the six years and have divided the years of the secondary-school period into two schools of three years each, called the junior and senior high schools, or the 6-3-3 plan.

There is also another type of school well established in certain quarters but organized on an entirely different basis and for a different reason. That is the type that has extended its course to include one or two years of college work. Thus in 1909 the committee of the National Education Association on the six-year course of study reported that twenty-two schools in twelve different states were so organized. The list today would be largely augmented.

Of these types of organization and administrative control the 6-3-3 plan seems to be the most successful. Both from Berkeley, California, and from Grand Rapids, Michigan, come reports of great satisfaction with the results obtained. Grand Rapids reports that since its organization in 1911 the junior high school has

increased in attendance from 430 to 871, and its teaching force from fourteen to thirty-six. The principal of the junior high school reports that the work of the third-year pupils is of a distinctly higher grade than the work of the freshman class in the ordinary four-year high school.

From Berkeley, California, comes the report that the loss in the ninth grade under the 6-3-3 plan for the limited period under which they have been running was 16.7 per cent compared with Ayer's study which showed a loss of 50 per cent, covering many cities, under the old plan. Similar reports have been received from Cokato, Minnesota; Neodesha, Kansas; Columbus, Ohio; Grafton, Minnesota, and many other cities.

Superintendent L. J. Rundlett, of Concord, New Hampshire, gives us some interesting figures comparing results obtained under the old plan of school organization and the present plan, in which the break comes at the sixth grade instead of the eighth grade as formerly. The following tabulation shows the cost of instruction per pupil in the high school since 1909:

1909-10.	Old plan.....	\$33.14
1910-11.	New plan.....	29.28
1911-12.	New plan.....	26.24
1912-13.	New plan.....	28.09

showing a decided decrease in cost for this item, while at the same time the scholarship of the high school rose from 76.15 per cent to 80.77 per cent, an increase of 4.62 per cent as between the years 1910-11 and 1912-13. The attendance has increased from 467 to 677 and the number leaving school has decreased. The Concord, New Hampshire, plan resembles the Berkeley plan except that the Concord plan saves a year's time for the pupil and should be distinguished as the 6-2-3 plan.

From many reports we have received similar results from both the 6-2-4 plan and the 6-6 plan of organization. All report that the segregation of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils in separate buildings, where it is possible, has had a marked effect on the quality and quantity of the work, and also has kept a greater number of pupils in school for a greater number of years than would otherwise have been probable.

These plans of secondary-school organization beginning at the sixth grade go far to solve the problem of vocational and prevocational education, which is so uppermost in our minds at this time. We believe that the problem will not be solved until all forms of vocational training having for their object the acquisition of manual dexterity are carried on under a flexible school organization and under intelligent guidance of expert workmen with pedagogical knowledge. This instruction cannot be given under the grade-school type of organization. Much of the criticism of the schoolmaster and his lack of adaptability to this modern theory of the duty of the school would disappear were this fact frankly faced. The public in general unconsciously feels this lack of adaptation of means to end. Vocational educational training, technical vocational educational training, should begin at the age of twelve, and in order to be successful must have some success made possible which the high-school organization and atmosphere would insure. This suggestion does not at all preclude the possibility of successful prevocational adjustments in the grades, but technical skill of a high order is not possible before the age of adolescence begins.

The remaining type of organization, that type which adds two years to the four-year high school, is interesting and instructive. We report several from many available examples. The state of California, owing to the peculiar physical features of the state and the difficulty and expense that it entails for graduates from its high schools to attend either of its great universities, passed a law in 1907 authorizing public high schools to add two years' instruction to their present four-year course of study to include two years of college training. The graduates from these courses are admitted to the junior year of Leland Stanford and the University of California. Principal Frederick Liddeke, of the Fresno Junior College Department of the Fresno High School, reports: "Our students are doing well at the universities; in fact, I think it is safe to say that our Junior College students average better than those who go to the University of California and Stanford direct." He reports that they have 42 pupils enrolled in this department.

Principal J. Stanley Brown, of the Joliet Township High School, reports an enrolment of 65 pupils in the Junior College Depart-

ment of his high school. There is no legal definition of a high school in the state of Illinois to prevent such an organization. Principal Brown states that the students from this department have repeatedly entered different colleges in the North Central territory and have graduated without difficulty in two years. Los Angeles, California, does a very able work in the Junior College Department. The Lane and Crane Technical high schools of the city of Chicago also carry on two years of engineering work with marked success.

The financial, to say nothing of the social, saving to these communities is enormous. Assuming that the average expense per pupil attending college away from home is \$500 a year, the saving to the citizens of Fresno would be more than \$15,000 a year and that to the citizens of Joliet at least \$25,000 a year. In making this estimate I assume that it will take at least \$100 additional expense each for the education of these pupils. This is a liberal estimate, as much of the instruction would be in classes only partially filled at present. This is, of course, the least of the benefits derived, for the effect on the community as a whole is incalculable. In such a community as Joliet it would be almost impossible for these pupils to contemplate a college course were it not for the possibilities offered in the local school. The General Education Board recently made an investigation of the constituency of American colleges and produced the startling fact that all of our American colleges are in fact local institutions. All draw the larger part of their undergraduate bodies from a very limited territory. Eleven colleges in the state of Iowa, including the state university, reported an attendance of 2,880 students in their literature and art departments to the General Education Board. Of these, 2,624, or 91.11 per cent, came from the state of Iowa; 904, or 31.05 per cent, came from the county in which the college was located. None of these colleges was located in Des Moines, Davenport, or Sioux City, the largest population centers in Iowa. Had colleges in these population centers been included, the percentage attending from local communities would have been much higher. The undergraduate departments of the great universities and the small colleges perform one of their greatest functions, it would seem, by

bringing the opportunities of higher education to many students who would not be able to go to college otherwise. This system of college instruction for the first two years of the undergraduate department should be carried on by all high schools in communities financially capable of sustaining this department of the work. This would in no wise, we believe, interfere with the work done at present by the colleges, but would add to the opportunities and reach a class not yet touched. The opportunity for doing great public service is ours and we have the material equipment and have, or can have for the asking, the teaching force to do this work as well as it is being done now, at great social and material saving.

It will be noticed that the instances of successful experiments in the reorganization of the grades and high schools have been taken from large and small school systems alike: Grafton, South Dakota, and Columbus, Ohio; Berkeley, California, and Cokato, Minnesota; Chicago, Illinois, the Lane and Crane Technical high schools, and Neodesha, Kansas. We find school systems here representing purely agricultural communities, great industrial centers, residence districts, and communities of combined population, and each reports the new plan easily adjustable to local needs. We have found that the cost of instruction and equipment is not burdensome; indeed, in some cases the cost has been relatively decreased by the experiment. The break between the grade schools and the high school coming at the twelfth year rather than at the fourteenth would be as easy to accomplish in a school system which now is able to give but a single two-year course as it is in a great system which gives many four-year courses.

Our investigation has led us to conclude that a reorganization of the grade schools, high schools, and colleges should be effected, and that the dividing-line between the grades and high school should be made at the sixth grade; that the ideal system would be the 6-3-3 plan, because the pupils of the ages of from twelve to fourteen could then be segregated from those of the three upper years, much to the benefit of both groups. First-year high-school pupils need quite different treatment from those in the upper grades and are more nearly of the same intellectual ability with the seventh and eighth grades than with the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth.

However, the form of organization should be determined practically by local conditions, owing to difference in population and the financial ability of the communities concerned. In all of our investigation we have found no case in which an experiment relative to lengthening the secondary period has been a failure. In each case conditions have been improved, and greatly improved. Another significant fact is that in no case has there been even an attempt to carry secondary-school methods entirely lower than the sixth grade nor farther up than the fourteenth, thus defining very accurately the effective scope of such training.

Of the many encouraging features developed during this investigation, perhaps the most significant of all is the very marked tendency to economize the time of the pupil in his educational progress. In the schools which have extended their courses down to include the seventh- and eighth-grade work, those studies commonly designated as high-school studies taken at the age of twelve and thirteen need not be repeated in the last year of the junior high school, and the pupils pursuing these studies are by so much farther advanced toward college entrance than others. Those who do not elect these studies, but prefer some form of industrial work, are by so much farther advanced in their special lines than are those who have not had such opportunity. In one school, at least—the school system connected with the Department of Education of the University of Chicago—the courses of study in the elementary school and the high school have been so combined and correlated that the student's progress has been accelerated one full year's time. That is, those students who have completed the seventh grade are entered directly into the freshman class of the High School. Principal Franklin W. Johnson, of the High School, reports that not only do these students so advanced attain an equal grade with students coming from the schools having eight grades, but they have in fact reached a higher standard of scholarship than the average of those entered from other schools. As was pointed out previously, the Concord, New Hampshire, school has saved one year's time and has had a material gain in standards as well as a decrease in student mortality. The Committee on Economy of Time in Education of the National Council of Education in its

1913 report holds such a saving to be entirely feasible and desirable. By a proper combination of work, the elimination of non-essentials, and a more concentrated attack, your committee believes a year's time may be saved during the grade period. This is easily demonstrable in some subjects. In the matter of English there are a great many repetitions. Classics "studied" in one year are "read" the next and "studied" again in the third. Material is worked over until the student becomes exhausted and rebellious. Mathematics, likewise, offers a rich field for reform. The subject-matter of arithmetic needs overhauling. With less time wasted on non-essentials and with improved methods of instruction, as much progress could be made in seven years as is now made in eight. We believe the same fact can be demonstrated with other subjects. Much saving might also be brought about by proper correlation. These matters we can only suggest, because they are departmental matters and need the keen insight of departmental experts for their proper demonstration.

Our investigation has led us to an even more momentous conclusion, and that is that should the secondary period begin at the twelfth year and extend to the eighteenth an equal amount of time might be saved by a thorough recasting and overhauling of the secondary-school curriculum in connection with that of the college. This conclusion is similar to that reached by the Council of Education Committee on Economy of Time in Education, a conclusion arrived at quite independently by both committees. The six years of the secondary period surely offer quite as much opportunity for reform as do the six years of the elementary period and with equal promise of success.

Should further investigation and experiment demonstrate the truth of this conclusion, graduates from our high schools at the age of eighteen could enter the junior year of our American colleges and universities with equal mental ability with those going through the freshman and sophomore years of the colleges at this time. Even then, as President Baker points out so conclusively, our preparatory education for entrance into true university work must be prolonged two years over similar education in England and Germany, humiliating as it is for us to make the acknowledgment.

The age of twenty is none too young to begin true university training. President Lowell conclusively proves that those students pursuing courses in the colleges of medicine and law at Harvard who are the most successful are those who have entered these departments at the younger years.

The evidences which have been produced in the foregoing statements and the evidences that will be produced by the other members of the committee make it very clear that some type of reorganization of secondary education must lead to a series of significant changes in the course of study.

Since the report of the Committee of Ten, various efforts have been made to bring about a reorganization of the courses in particular subjects. This association is vitally interested in such problems, for it has been the business of the North Central Association from the first to define the units which have been used in this territory. Evidently for the task of reorganizing the secondary course the North Central Association has, by virtue of the relative homogeneity of the schools on its approved list, some advantage over the National Education Association, which includes all parts of the country. For example, difference between our state universities in this part of the country and the great private endowments in the East has been one of the conspicuous facts in recent legislation and discussion of this matter of college entrance. It remains, therefore, for this association to consider the advisability of undertaking a detailed discussion of the whole high-school organization somewhat in the fashion adopted by the Committee of Ten. The arrangement of the details of work in each department is distinctly a departmental affair and can be worked out only by specialists, who in turn should unite in considering the general question of the course of study for the whole school. Thus, in adjusting the English requirements and the relations between the work of the elementary school, the high school, and the college in the matter of English, it will be necessary to bring into conference those who are widely concerned in the administration of English in all of these institutions. This conference is provided in part through the National Council of English Teachers. That organization, however, lacks the general organization which would

in turn bring English into harmony with the modern foreign languages.

It seems not untimely, therefore, to suggest a general consideration of the relation between the high-school course of study, the course of study in the elementary school, and the course of study in the college. This matter ought to be taken up in great detail and along departmental lines. If subcommittees of this association could begin working vigorously on the problem of an economical and compact series of courses taught in the elementary school, the high school, and the college, no doubt the general administrative suggestions of reorganizing the elementary and high schools could be carried out in such a way as to justify in detail the general program. It is quite impossible for any general committee to go farther than to lay out a program of investigation and propaganda that would carry the association into three or four years of active wrestling with the problem.

This program of work to extend over several years commends itself in view of the fact that the general conviction is widespread that some kind of reorganization ought to be made. The difficulty at the present moment seems to be to work out the details of the reorganization and put it into effect. Individual institutions can, indeed, undertake to modify the mode of organization at a single point or at several points, but no single institution and no small group of institutions can carry on this work effectively. There is no other association in the United States that is better qualified by membership and tradition to discuss a general program of reorganization than this association, which includes both the high schools and the colleges and has established the practice of subjecting both of these institutions to careful scrutiny and to comparative study.

A program, therefore, of careful investigation and of active promotion of the forms of reorganization that shall be found desirable after this careful investigation is the program which the committee wishes to leave behind it as its essential recommendation to the association.

A COMPARISON OF THE FIRST-YEAR COURSES IN LATIN AND GERMAN

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In our high schools, as in most of the larger high schools of the country, a year of Latin is rated as the equivalent of a year of German in the matter of credit for graduation. In general, our colleges and universities likewise assign equal value for entrance credit to a year in either of these languages. The object of the following study is to test the correctness of this equal rating.

The first-year Latin course in Woodward High School is as follows: in Pearson's *Essentials of Latin* the first 59 lessons excepting that part of Lesson 50 which deals with indefinite pronouns; also § 355, and Lessons 62, 64, and 70; further, all the verbal forms in the Appendix excepting *prosum*, the gerund, the supine, the imperative, and the periphrastic conjugations. In the other high schools most of the teachers, I understand, teach much which we omit, viz.: result clauses, relative purpose clauses, object clauses after verbs of fearing, causal, concessive, and temporal clauses, the dative after compound verbs, the imperative, the hortatory subjunctive, the gerund, indefinite pronouns, and, together with these matters, a large mass of additional vocabulary. The Woodward course, therefore, is by far the "weakest" in the city. This meager course we propose to compare with the corresponding German course in the commercial department. The commercial German is a "stronger" course than the academic German in that it comprises a larger number of grammatical facts.

The first-year commercial German in Woodward High School, as printed in the official course of study, consists of the first 25 lessons in Kayser and Monteizer's *Foundations of German* and the first 25 reading-lessons in Förster's *Geschichten und Märchen*. By agreement, however, of all the teachers of commercial German in

the city this course was modified, so I am informed (by Mr. Albert Mayer)¹, so as to include only the first 20 lessons in the *Foundations of German* and an indefinite number of reading-lessons varying according to the pleasure of the individual teacher.

Let us now scrutinize these two courses, the Latin and the German. Let us take apart these two buildings, and weigh the material—find out, by actual count, how many bricks, how much mortar, how many feet of lumber go to make up our Latin and our German structure.

We shall begin with the vocabulary. In the first 20 lessons of the *Foundations of German* there are the following nouns not strikingly similar to the corresponding English nouns:

Tante, Deutschland, Herr, Frau, Kind, Frühling, Samstag, Ruhetag, Fräulein, Kaufmann, Tochter, Schneider, Schneiderin, Schüler, Geschäft, Hochschule, Aufgabe, Blume, Zeit, Knabe, Feder, Zeitung, König, Bote, Freude, Tinte, Langsamkeit, Kindheit, Liebe, Leben, Mensch, Arbeit, Neuigkeit, Schönheit, Stadt, Tugend, Fürst, Art, Tat, Tür, Uhr, Zahl, Graf, Held, Narr, Hans, Prüfung, Schenkung, Geselle, Gesellschaft, Feindschaft, Jugend, Tasche, Wohnung, Messer, Fabrikant, Maler, Gemüse, Vogel, Käse, Ernte, Gebäude, Getreide, Abend, Bürger, Tag, Kost, Himmel, Geduld, Vergnügen, Gesundheit, Bahn, Tisch, Stunde, Lied, Zimmer, Diener, Maurer, Gegend, Fenster, Brief, Fabrik, Meinung, Gebirge, Leute, Arzt, Citrone, Kartoffel, Unwahrheit, Stück.

Total, 90. In the learning of each of these nouns the student must master 4 facts: the word, to what declension it belongs, its gender, and its meaning. Learning these 90 nouns means, therefore, learning 90×4 , or 360 facts.

The following nouns are strikingly similar to the corresponding English words:

Onkel, Professor, Doktor, Bruder, Sommer, Winter, Gold, Silber, Amerika, Fritz, Berta, Wein, Brot, Fleisch, Eisen, Sonntag, Dezember, August, Mann, Herbst, Schultag, Milch, Metall, Wasser, Bier, Vater, Mutter, Sohn, Schwester, Sänger, Schuhmacher, Strasse, Buch, Dame, Rose, Schule, Papier, Weber, Weberei, Freiheit, Junge, Sklave, Bäckerei, Heimat, Land, Mädchen, Soldat, Christ, Ochs, Prinz, Advokat, Kamerad, Neffe, Präsident, Stahl, Student, Wittwe, Studentenschaft, Freundschaft, Hand, Universität, Demokrat, Diamant, Kandidat, Patient, Dummheit, Garten, Apfel, Haus, Häuschen, Mütterchen, Regen, Jahr, Eltern, Morgen, Familie, Wetter, Johann, Freund,

¹ Teacher of German in Hughes High School.

Hunger, Durst, Vaterland, Kaffee, Antwort, Wort, Woche, Arm, Fuss, Wagen, Nacht, Bett, Sprache, Glück, Unglück, Nadel, England, Adresse, Feuer, Zucker, Limonade.

Total, 100. In learning these nouns the student must master 2 facts concerning each—declension and gender—for the word and its meaning are known from the English. Learning these 100 nouns, therefore, means learning 100×2 , or *200 facts*.

These are the adjectives not strikingly similar to the corresponding English words:

Gross, klein, krank, gelb, gesund, schwarz, teuer, deutsch, viel, schön, langsam, wahr, klug, faul, schlecht, schwer, süß, fröhlich, glücklich, kurz, schwach, brav, gewiss, lieb, schädlich, schnell, stark, gerade, stolz, böse, ganz, furchtbar, lesbar, artig, aufmerksam, höflich, hübsch.

Total, 37. The German adjectival declension is simple. For each of the above adjectives, the student should acquire 2 items of information—the word, and its meaning— 37×2 , or *74 facts*.

The following 33 adjectives are so similar to the English as to be negligible in our count. In learning them the student learns practically nothing new.

Alt, jung, warm, kalt, wohl, englisch, genug, gut, grau, neu, weiss, dumm, väterlich, mütterlich, amerikanisch, freundlich, frisch, grün, lang, rot, klar, still, wild, französisch, laut, recht, hart, reich, treu, fruchtbar, trinkbar, wunderbar, dankbar.

Verbs unlike the English:

Heissen, schreiben, verstehen, wohnen, bitten, fahren, lesen, treffen, bleiben, sein, arbeiten, lehren, spielen, glauben, kaufen, schenken, schicken, lieben, kennen, prüfen, bezahlen, fragen, reden, verkaufen, werden, bedauern, bauen, warten, bereiten, verkehren, gehören.

Total, 31. Now, in learning a German verb, the student is expected to learn 4 things: the three principal parts, and the meaning. We disregard the fact that most of the weak verbs are regular. The preceding verbs, then, comprise 31×4 , or *124 facts*.

The next list is of verbs, whose meaning is evident from the English:

Singen, finden, gehen, kommen, trinken, fallen, sprechen, sehen, brechen, schlafen, tun, lernen, hören, haben, machen, sagen, senden, kosten, antworten, lachen, fürchten, hoffen, danken, grüssen, hassen.

Total, 25. Here the student must learn only the principal parts, 25×3 , or *75 facts*.

Of the other words in the first 20 lessons this group is unlike the English:

Der, und, aber, auch, ja, nein, noch, sehr, wie, zu, jetzt, wo, dort, immer, nie, oder, auf, mit, zwei, durch, heute, nur, dieser, jener, jeder, welcher, beisammen, zusammen, sein, ihr, unser, euer, kein, man, denn, warum, wieder, wenig, früher, etwas, gewöhnlich, zum Beispiel, bald, entweder, von, allein, sondern, schon, nach, sonst, ehe, damals, vielleicht, nichts, seit, beinahe, wer, was für ein, gegen, ich, du, er, sie, es, wir, ihr, Sie.

Total, 67. Here the student must learn the word, and its meaning— 67×2 , or *134 facts*.

There remain the following 26 words:

In, hier, nicht, so, mehr, wenn, oft, mancher, solcher, aller, bei, mein, dein, für, allerlei, gestern, dann, morgen, wann, als, eben, vor, aus, ausser, lange, meistens.

Because of their resemblance to the corresponding English words, these involve no new knowledge, and are omitted from consideration.

The full number, then, of items of information comprised in our German vocabulary is:

Nouns	360
	200
Adjectives	74
Verbs	124
	75
Other words	134
Total	967

These are the elementary and basic facts in our first-year German course—the First Regiment of our German army—967 little German soldiers, over whose movements the student should possess considerable command.

Just a word of explanation before we pass on to consider the Latin course in the same fashion. Our German vocabulary was divided into two groups: words so strikingly similar to the corresponding English words as to be virtually English; and words not thus strikingly similar. Reversing the order, let us call the dissimilar words, Class A, and the similar words, Class B. To

Class B belong such words as *Schuhmacher*, shoemaker; *oceanus*, ocean. Now, the German words *Blume*, *Knabe*, although cognates of English *bloom* and *knave*, must be placed in Class A, because *bloom* and *knave* are not the correct English equivalents. Thus the Latin word, *pecunia*, although it suggests such words as *pecuniary* and *impecunious* (English words themselves strange to the average first-year high-school student), is not at all similar to the corresponding English word, *money*, and therefore falls into Class A. Now for the Latin.

NOUNS. CLASS A (DISSIMILAR WORDS)

Puella, regina, stella, filia, via, silva, luna, porta, sagitta, insula, terra, pecunia, vita, copia, copiae, femina, patria, agricola, nauta, inopia, amicus, cibus, dominus, equus, hortus, servus, bellum, donum, oppidum, frumentum, incola, gener, socer, liberi, liber, magister, ager, vir, puer, discipulus, filius, nuntius, gladius, proelium, locus, loca, praemium, pilum, saxum, telum, castra, hasta, legatus, hiberna, impedimentum, vicus, praeda, periculum, dux, miles, virtus, caput, eques, rex, fuga, consul, homo, corpus, flumen, pes, pedes, tempus, vulnus, mare, urbs, hostis, nomen, pons, sedile, collis, caedes, navis, ignis, turris, finis, avis, nox, hiems, aestas, lux, annus, celeritas, civis, studium, obses, imperium, imperator, amicitia, pax, mensis, iter, civitas, fines, magnitudo, gens, consilium, moenia, auxilium, princeps, coniuratio, Rhodanus, auctoritas, iumentum, carrus, profectio, lex, matrimonium, iusiurandum, murus, pugna, vinculum, poena, frater, mors, cliens, oratio, ripa, consuetudo, iudicium, obaeratus, casus, domus, exercitus, manus, cornu, deus, humus, rus, equitatus, impetus, millia, altitudo, eruptio, socius, acies, dies, res, nihil, satis, respublica, latus, latitudo, adventus, animus, fides, potestas, agmen, reditio, spes, vadum, commeatus, opus, usus, gratis, plebs, aditus, vallum, mulier, res frumentaria, conspectus, praesidium, fossa, Lemannus, castellum, ratis, munitio, angustiae, deprecator, largitio.

Total, 179. Facts to be learned: the nominative form, declension, gender, and meaning— 179×4 , or 716 facts.

NOUNS. CLASS B (SIMILAR WORDS)

Rosa, fabula, Graecia, Europa, Gallia, Italia, Roma, vinum, Marcus, Romanus, Gallus, Graeci, arma, Helvetii, pater, pars, mons, animal, Belga, Aquitanus, Celta, Germanus, Aquitania, Garumna, Pyrenaei, oceanus, Hispania, Caesar, legio, cura, multitudo, populus, libertas, numerus, natura, Rhenus, Orgetorix, Iura, provincia, Casticus, Sequanus, Dumnorix, Haeduus, Labienus, cohors, fortuna, causa, natio, clamor, labor, magistratus, rumor,

idus, portus, Tralles, Athenae, Carthago, Corinthus, Delphi, mercator, passus, hora, aedificium, Rauraci, Tulingi, Latobrigi, Boii, Noreia, Allobroges, Genava, diligentia, signum, littera, litterae, lacus, iniuria, Titus, Aquileia, Ocelum, Vocontii, Segusiavi.

Total, 81. Facts to be learned: the nominative form, declension, and gender— 81×3 , or *243 facts*.

ADJECTIVES, CLASS A

Magnus, bonus, malus, parvus, superbus, fidus, gratus, meus, tuus, albus, carus, peritus, latus, validus, multus, liber, pulcher, tener, miser, asper, niger, piger, idoneus, pauci, ferus, laetus, primus, altus, angustus, noster, acer, equester, finitimus, ferax, facilis, omnis, par, vetus, reliquus, potens, paratus, tertius, alius, alter, uter, uterque, neuter, ullus, nullus, unus, duo, tres, quattuor, quinque, septem, octo, novem, decem, undecim, duodecim, tredecim, quindecim, sedecim, septendecim, duodeviginti, undeviginti, mille, fortis, velox, tutus, turpis, gracilis, humilis, lenis, melior, optimus, peior, pessimus, maior, maximus, minor, minimus, plus, plurimus, vetustior, veterrimus, maior natu, maximus natu, iuvenis, iunior, minor natu, minimus natu, senex, senior, superus supremus, summus, inferus, infimus, imus, amplus, nobilis, proximus, quartus, quadringenti, extremus, suus, vester, alienus, posterus, cottidianus, invitus, qui, bellicosus, inimicus, ulterior, nonnulli, citerior, septimus, complures.

Total, 120. Facts to be learned: the nom. sing. masc., the declension, and meaning— 120×3 , or *360 facts*.

ADJECTIVES, CLASS B

Longus, novus, similis, dissimilis, difficilis, brevis, Helvetius, Romanus, solus, totus, sex, publicus, privatus, Noricus.

Total, 14. Facts to be learned: the nom. sing. masc., and the declension— 14×2 , or *28 facts*.

VERBS, CLASS A

Amo, pugno, voco, culpo, laudo, servo, do, porto, convoco, comparo, supero, oppugno, maturo, expugno, moneo, video, terreo, dimico, augeo, vulnero, laboro (*suffer*), occupo, incolo, appello, pertineo, neco, conloco, compleo, contineo, confirmo, vasto, duco, mitto, vinco, relinquo, contendo, gero, iacio, capio, fugio, facio, interficio, traduco, dico, iubeo, debeo, cupio, constituo, paro, emigro, permoveo, obtineo, pono, nuntio, coepi, cognosco, cogo, eripio, careo, discedo, prohibeo, audio, munio, venio, cremo, morior, convenio, eo, exeo, transeo, incendio, maneo, conficio, pervenio, obsideo, exspecto, permitto, accedo, ago, instruo, administro, tollo, efferro, impendeo, dedo, committo, recipio, redeo, reddo, sustineo, reperio, circumvenio, educo, laccio, reduco, converto, occido, vincio, scribo, cado, existimo, demonstro, spero, scio, trado,

utor, sequor, cohortor, potior, proficiscor, arbitror, pello, hortor, vereor, fero, confero, moror, fio, pareo, noceo, credo, perduco, perficio, nego, iungo, perrumpo, conor, procedo, conloquor, rogo, teneo, impetro, suscipio, patior, renuntio, absum, praeficio, conscribo, hiemo, sum, possum, volo, nolo, malo.

Total, 144. Facts to be learned: the 4 principal parts and (5) the meaning— 144×5 , or 720 facts. But let us be precise. In the above list there are 12 deponent verbs. As these verbs have but 3 principal parts, our 720 facts should be reduced by 12, giving us 708 facts. The list includes also 41 regular verbs of the first conjugation. Of these the student need not learn the last two principal parts. Our 708 facts are, therefore, to be reduced further by 41×2 , or 82, leaving a net total for verbs of 626 facts.

VERBS, CLASS B

Delecto, armo, moveo, habeo, incito, divido, defendo, libero, punio, accuso, fluo, dimitto, respondeo, persuadeo, resisto, influo, repello.

Total, 17. Facts to be learned: the 4 principal parts— 17×4 , or 68 facts. This group comprises 5 regular verbs of the first conjugation. Our 68 facts should therefore be reduced, as shown above, by 5×2 , or 10, leaving us as a net total for this group of verbs 58 facts.

OTHER WORDS, CLASS A

Ubi, et, semper, -ne, cur, sed, hodie, nunc, contra, ad, mox, cum, in fugam dare, trans, per, de, multa nocte, saepe, quod, continenter, a, ab, ob, e, ex, diu, ex itinere, -que, pro, neque, undique, una ex parte, qua de causa, pro multitudine, in tertium annum, itaque, inter se, is, idem, et—et, post, qui, causam dico, ex vinculis, hic, ille, sub, ipse, iste, alter—alter, alius—alius, alii—alii, alii aliam in partem, quis, quam ob rem, interea, apud, a dextro cornu, a sinistro cornu, impetum facio in, mille passuum, nihil reliqui, iter facio, quam, ibi, inter, certiore eum facio, huc, quam maximus, summus (*top of*), imus (*bottom of*), medius (*middle of*), primo, multum, facile, bene, plus, plurimum, plurimum possum, novissimum agmen, primum agmen, eo (*there*), nihilominus, iam, quisque, transitur, proelium committo, se recipere, sine, ante, postea, autem, propter, tamen, inde, si, nisi, circum, quam primum, signa converto, at, nunquam, secum, ut, ne, in animo habeo, mihi est in animo, in reliquum tempus, inter se dare, in flumine pontem facio, sua sponte, magnum iter, extra, ego, nos, tu, vos, sui, mecum, tecum, nobiscum, vobiscum, quibuscum.

Total, 123. Here the student must learn at least two facts in each instance: (1) the word or phrase, and (2) its meaning— 123×2 , or 246 facts.

OTHER WORDS, CLASS B

Non, in.

Total, 2. Facts to be learned: none.

This then is the complete account of the items of information contained in our Latin vocabulary:

Nouns (A).....	716
Nouns (B).....	243
Adjectives (A).....	360
Adjectives (B).....	28
Verbs (A).....	626
Verbs (B).....	58
Other words.....	246

Total..... 2,277

We see, therefore, that, in this region of vocabulary, our puny German regiment of 967 stands face to face with a tremendous Roman legion of 2,277. The whole matter of vocabulary for both courses may be summarized thus:

	GERMAN				LATIN			
	Class A	Class B	Total	Facts To Be Learned	Class A	Class B	Total	Facts To Be Learned
Nouns.....	90	100	190	560	179	81	260	959
Adjectives.....	37	33	74	74	120	14	134	388
Verbs.....	31	25	56	199	144	17	161	684
Other words.....	67	26	93	134	123	2	125	246
Total.....	225	184	413	967	566	114	680	2,277

As to facts to be learned, the Latin course, here, is 2.35 times as difficult as the German.

A similar detailed study of inflections gives the following results:

TABLE OF INFLECTIONS

	GERMAN		LATIN	
	Forms	New Forms	Forms	New Forms
Nouns.....	9	9	48	48
Adjectives.....	10	5	40	14
Pronouns.....	12	5	55	48
Verbs.....	34	34	310	310
Totals.....	65	53	453	420

In the matter of inflection, then, the Latin course of 420 distinct forms is 7.92 times as difficult as the German course of 53 forms.

SYNTAX

Woodward has departed from the traditional custom of teaching the entire Latin grammar in the first year. The following comparison of the syntax in the first-year courses in German and Latin will surely help either to weaken or to confirm our faith in the justice of our rebellion.

A careful comparison of the syntax made by counting the different points given in the German and the Latin courses shows 48 items for the German, but 120 items for the Latin.

The first-year Latin course, therefore, with its 120 items in the syntax, is, in this respect, 2.50 times as comprehensive as the German course.

We have now seen that the Latin course is, in the matter of vocabulary, 2.35 times as difficult as the German, in the matter of inflections 7.92 times as difficult, and, as to syntax, 2.5 times as difficult. We may add these numbers, and divide by 3, and with a rough sort of justice conclude that the Latin course, as a whole, is 4.29 times as difficult as the German. Suppose we subtract a liberal discount for matters which might have been overlooked, and say that the Latin course, as we are required to give it, is four times as hard as the German. In the light of what has preceded, this is a modest claim; if correct, a student whose work in beginning German is just sufficient to receive a mark of 100 per cent would, for an equal amount of work in the Latin department, receive a mark of 25 per cent. We are, therefore, driven to acknowledge that there is outrageous falsity in the judgment of our colleges and universities, that these two courses, like the two triangles in geometry, are equal in all respects.

If the college persists in demanding that such things be taught, the high school should faithfully continue to teach them, but only to those who intend to go to college. For that class of students who form the recent increment in our high-school population the college requirements are far too severe. It is not strange that our high-school barbarians, like the Gauls of old, shrink from

Caesar and his accompanying terrors, and take refuge in the adjoining morasses of German, Spanish, and manual training. They know how the field of battle is strewn with corpses after the conflict with the pitiless Roman adversary. For well might the head of a Latin department sum up the yearly work of his teachers in the old familiar formula: "*Quos milites nostri consecuti, magnum numerum eorum occiderunt.*" If a year of German is worth one credit for entrance, a year of Latin ought to be worth at least four.

Latin has long held the primacy in secondary education. But it must relinquish its pre-eminence if it continues to ignore the demands which that education is making. Fifty years ago secondary education was a preparation for college, and the college cared to receive only those of our youth who were exceptionally gifted. The college has of late receded from the rigorousness of its demands. The secondary school, however, as represented by the city high school, has changed the very nature of its being. It is no longer a little preparatory school for the classes, but a huge democratic institution struggling for the uplift of the masses. Few are so poor, so weak in body, or so feeble-minded as to be passed over in contempt by the modern high school.

Latin, therefore, must return to the people. The light which it throws upon the English language is invaluable. It has left countless relics of its living existence in the phraseology of law, of medicine, of theology, of the various sciences, indeed in that of business and social intercourse even in the humblest walks of life. It is the source of the Roman languages, and its knowledge a bountiful aid to their mastery. Roman art and architecture, though themselves but imitations, are prototypes of our own. The Roman commonwealth was an institution much like our own and presents the most instructive example in all history of the dangers which beset a vast and wealthy republic. Chiefly for these reasons should our youth study Latin. As for the ability to write connected Latin, to read the language with rapidity and ease, to repeat with the accuracy of a phonograph the multifarious rules of syntax, to pronounce with unerring precision that a certain combination of words is a brachylogy, a hendiadys, a hysteron proteron, a litotes,

a zeugma, an anaphora, or a chiasmus,—these are accomplishments which I, as a teacher of Latin, regard with amazement, some of them with sadness in my soul. The ability to read classical Latin “at sight” is for the majority of high-school students of no more worth than the ability to read blindfolded.

Is not the German course too easy? This question, I confess, I am unable to answer. The Germans proceed by easy stages. They study in the first year a limited portion of the grammar, which is “worked in” by a series of reading-lessons of the simplest possible character. In these reading-lessons I do not remember seeing a single verb except in the present tense either of the indicative or imperative mode. The later years of the course prescribe more difficult reading which involves further study of the grammar. German pupils do not read the classics; they learn the language from schoolbooks carefully adapted to their needs and their ability. The German course, if easy, is pedagogical.

How different is the Latin! The high pronunciamento of the college requirements declares that a huge amount should be read of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil (although substitutions are permitted of other authors equally difficult or more so). As a consequence the students must be driven over virtually the entire Latin grammar in the first year. At the beginning of the second year, when the pupil brings back a hazy recollection of his essentials, the teacher places in his eager hands, not a schoolbook written for the pupil, but a masterpiece of elegant Latinity addressed to a select public of educated Romans.

Caesar wrote probably the easiest to read of all our heritage of classical Latin. The scholars of the Renaissance decreed that the only Latin worth while is classical Latin. Since we bow to their decree, we must use Caesar as our first reader. To parse Caesar we must know beforehand practically the entire Latin grammar. There seems to be no escape. The situation not only is bad; it looks hopeless.

A German course equivalent to the Latin we are giving under the lash of college entrance would be something as follows:

First year: All the German grammar.

Second year: An amount of Schiller's *Geschichte des dreissig-jährigen Kriegs* equal to the first four books of the *Gallie War*.

Third year: From 120 to 160 pages of Mommsen or some other German professor who writes involved periodic sentences like those of Cicero.

Fourth year: An amount of Goethe's *Faust* equal to the first six books of the *Aeneid*.

Throughout the four years much practice looking toward the turning of quaint monstrosities of English into artificial university German. Ask any teacher of high-school German what he thinks of such a course, and he will answer that it is too ridiculous for discussion.

What are we to do? Should we protest? We have protested, and now the colleges permit us to substitute for the traditional reading other literature—Nepos, Sallust, Cicero's *Letters*, Ovid, etc. This shows on the part of the colleges a kindly disposition to solace us in our time of trouble. It also shows their utter incapability of understanding or easing our difficulties. They dwell under alien skies. Their people are not our people. Protest is useless and foolish. There is no hope save in secession and rebellion. The colleges must be deposed from their magistracy over us, for they govern us without intelligence of our needs. We must be our own masters. We must teach our pupils what they are able to learn, not what the stranger in the college dictates. We must make a declaration of independence, of which these are the preliminary articles:

1. We propose to have a Latin course for students who do not intend to go to college.
2. Our aim in this course shall be to teach Latin, not Latinity.
3. Since the Roman world has not bequeathed to us a series of graded reading-lessons suitable for beginners, we shall use other reading-matter than heretofore, even though it be not classic, and though it lack the flavor of antiquity. We renounce our worship of the unholy trinity of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil.

Will the revolt I am preaching be made? I confidently believe it will. But revolt, if successful, means revolution, and revolutions are not accomplished in a day. Meanwhile we should mitigate, as far as we are able, the evils of our condition.

Great reforms are not possible as long as Caesar or any other

classic author remains as the chief element of the second-year course. For this purpose Caesar is probably preferable to any of his competitors. His book is interesting to boys. Since he deals chiefly with military life, his vocabulary is not extensive. Further, practically all his verbs are in the third person.

In this last fact lies an opportunity which we have hitherto failed to exploit. We may fully prepare to read Caesar, and yet omit 176 (more than half) of the 310 verbal forms now found in the first-year course. If we do this, we shall make the burden lighter at the very point where its pressure is most severe. Let the beginner, then, learn, in place of conjugation, synopsis in the third person. As he has no use for the first and second persons up to the third year, he may profitably postpone the completion of the conjugation until just before taking up Cicero.

In conclusion let me say another word of praise for the enemy, and restate the reason for my enmity. The traditional Latin course is a grand old course; in my opinion, it is the most magnificent thing in the high-school curriculum. But magnificence is for the nobility. The old Latin course is only for the choice and master spirits, for the new generation of immortals who see at a glance, who immediately understand, and who remember forever.

THE PLAGUE OF PERSONALITY^{*}

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Imagine a scene on a railway train running out of Edinburgh. A Scotchman and an American are reading the papers. Columns are full of details of a strike of transportation employees in London. There is a little item to the effect that the king yesterday shot 196 brace of partridges. The American remarks, "The king is enjoying himself. What a useful guardian of his people!"

The Scotchman, argumentative as usual, retorts, "What good would he be in a railway strike?" The American replies, "What good is he anyway?"

"Sir," replied the Scotchman, "do you forget that in British Africa there are millions of souls, most of them uncivilized? In British India there are hundreds of millions of people, in the other colonial possessions there are hordes of semibarbarous races, all necessary to the prosperity of the empire. Their only conception of government is the will of a personal ruler. The oriental nations in arrested development must have an objective head; they haven't the mentality to conceive of abstract common interest, they've got to have personality."

One sometimes wonders whether the administrative processes of educational systems belong to conditions such as that Scotchman cited to show the need of a personal king. One sometimes wonders whether the continuance of the prevailing habit of school government promises to perpetuate a condition among those subject to it that makes them incapable of what is deemed efficient service unless they are governed by the sort of personality that is necessary to control living beings who do not guide themselves.

If the purpose of public schools is to produce for the republic a body of self-directing citizens; if there is in schoolmasters any per-

^{*}Address delivered at the meeting of Harvard Teachers' Association, Cambridge, Massachusetts, March 7, 1914.

sistence of monarchy which tends to make them prefer to direct schools rather than to train schools toward self-direction, will it be appropriate to call such a tendency an affliction? It is that trait of the schoolmaster's character I should like to discuss. It is that nuisance in his make-up that I mean by the plague of personality. I am asking you to consider that portion of his ego that is damaging, pestiferous, and preventive of hale growth of the service he is engaged in. The characteristics of this personality we may read summed up in a bright and witty, but also depressing, little book by Mr. C. W. Bardeen, of Syracuse, New York, entitled *Teaching as a Business*.

If you are interested in knowing how general the opinion is that a typical schoolmaster develops in himself objectionable features of personality, try the experiment of noting the reaction upon your intelligent friends not in this calling when you test them like this: say to one of these acquaintances after another, "If you should hear of Lawyer Thompson or Dr. Smith or Merchant Brown the remark, 'He is a regular schoolmaster,' would your opinion be favorable or unfavorable?"

Try also upon them this: "If you should hear, regarding Lawyer Thompson or Dr. Smith or Merchant Brown, the remark, 'He is a regular engineer,' would your opinion be favorable or unfavorable?"

It happens that the school with which I am connected occupies a new building which brings to it many visitors from out of town, among them members of boards of education in various cities. I have been trying upon them these questions: "How long have you been a member of the board? Is your opinion, now that you have become more familiar with the school man, more favorable or less favorable than before you went upon the board of education?" I haven't found any board-member yet who answers "more favorable." The part of our personality that is responsible for this general contempt is the subject of my inquiry today. There are societies to rescue drunkards, to save sinners, to cure consumptives. This association might do a great service in defending schools from their principals and systems from their superintendents. Let us try some prescriptions.

The cure of oracularism.—We can possibly cure ourselves of giving a conclusive opinion on every subject by bearing in mind that there is no proved science of our business; what it needs more than anything else just now is experimenters and provers rather than teachers who follow a law laid down by us. When a superintendent finds himself tilting back in his chair and talking to a teacher instead of listening to one, the angle of the chair, like the position of a railway semaphore, is a danger signal. It means, "Be careful; you're going to oracularize in a moment; don't do it." A man teacher comes in and says, "What method would you suggest by which the music stands could be taken to the steamer?" Be careful. The music stands fold up into a space about two feet long by one inch in diameter. The music-master and the players in the orchestra are going from the school building to the excursion boat. Don't be led into doing a music-master's thinking for him. Because, for every reduction of thinking by teachers brought about by you the danger threatens that by-and-by the place will have only one thinker in it. Superior though the head man may know himself to be in thinking power, it will rarely happen that the sum of his thinking will exceed the sum of the thinking of the entire staff. But it is the tendency of a school to go on the assumption that the machinery of thought is all in one big head.

The teacher, in trouble, especially the lady teacher, tends to make a monarch of a head master. A tradition obtains that discipline is to be separated from teaching and that the master should do the disciplining for teachers in order that they may be free to teach. If the master really knows a scientific and efficient way to train the conduct of children he should not monopolize it. Let him ask advice of the teachers as to general practices of discipline to see whether he may not find an improvement upon his own ideas. When the disciplinary difficulty arises, do you think he ought to take the case out of the hands of the teacher? Or might he say, "How are you going to treat this case?" There may be danger in cases of discipline that the head master will become oracular.

They say of one superintendent that the solemnity with which he declares that twice two is four is surpassed only by the pompous

certainty with which he proclaims that twice two is five. Education used to belong to the church. Therefore its proclamations were eternal verities formed by divine power in the soul of a master, not worked out by trial, examination, and comparison. It is more enjoyable to be free of the thralldom of fact and of proof than to admit that one doesn't know. All the preachers I sat under in my early days had solved all doubts whatsoever. There was nothing left to do but to accept their decision as they stood in the pulpit with hand uplifted and told us authoritatively what was God's way. I remember one little girl in our town asked her mother if God boarded at the Rev. Mr. Sheldon's house, and if the Rev. Mr. Sheldon told God what to do.

We are in doubt as to the value of the attitude of the head master in teachers' meetings in laying down the law and declaring all the educational doctrine. If he succeeds in getting others than himself to speak, doubts as to the value of the conference rise within us when we note that he is not getting real opinions, but what the speakers think the master wants to have said, or else, if there happens to be an educational rumpus coming, the opponents are making wild objections in a desire to be different rather than to be right. In either case there is too much personality; it is a plague. I notice that most educational authorities cannot avoid "summing up" after a conference over which they have presided. The sum-up is a temptation which leads many a master into sin, for, in summing up, one always generalizes, and then he settles. That is for the rest of us a cork in the flask of ideas, an admonition, "Go thy ways and think no more."

A practice which hardens the educator in his error is to question him when he has finished a paper or an address. You can feel the certainty in the atmosphere, the condition of one man who knows all the truth being led into generalizations by questioners who often intimate to him that they believe him possessed of power and authority to pronounce final decision upon all unsolved generalities. "I wish I were as sure of anything as Macaulay is of everything."

There are good cures for oracularism common enough. "Mingle with men." But get men that won't feed your vanity as

many do. Fresh out of college I took a trip on a schooner. Tom Doodeney, a sailor, took to me because I was an "educated young man." He brought up some coins that had been found in Roman ruins. I had studied Latin eight years and consequently could tell him nothing of the meaning of the inscriptions. On the same day we were going to rig a platform to hang over the side of the vessel. "I'll splice this end," said Tom, "and you can splice that end." "But I don't know how to splice a rope," said I.

"Well," he retorted, "I don't see what good it did you to go to college; you don't know nothing and you can't do nothing."

But a schoolmaster does not get in his business such tonic rebukes as that. If he is in error, grammatical, historical, social, ethical, none of his daily associates set him right. He whose chief business has been correction gets none. He expects deference to his knowledge and judgment. His growth is impaired. Nobody prunes him.

A schoolmaster could get this benefit from other men in a lodge, a church, or a club, if their notion that he likes to be deferred to did not lead them to continue to feed the very quality in him which needs banting. It seems as though some more effective means of curing the cocksureness of our business needs to be undertaken, such as marrying a strong-minded widow or taking a regular position Saturdays and vacations as a salesman, or going into active politics, or getting friends to write to third parties asking for opinions as to what kind of people we are, or to do something in a regular way which will serve as an antidote to the narrowing effect of our trade. For we are expected to secure a good deal of immediate and unquestioning obedience. Unconsciously we get to expect it not only from children but from adults: teachers, parents, and citizens. Then we grow into the type. There develops a side of our personality that is a plague. I used to feel that a teacher in a school directed by me ought not to engage in any business that would interfere with his teaching. But I have found that those who practice a little law, or follow real estate or something else that puts them into a position of evident superiority to me in their knowledge of men and affairs, make me a less objectionable personality.

The cure of bossism.—How to cure my love of command is another practical problem very similar to the one of getting rid of my oracularity. A good way to use teachers' meetings is to get orders transfigured into resolutions, instead of imposing the directions specifically upon the staff. What do you think of beginning farther back and getting the condition which you wish to remedy brought up in such a manner as to make the need of concerted action very evident? Then you can get opinions as to corrective measures expressed with some fulness. I submit for your consideration an example of such action in the case of discipline. This is a measure that came from teachers to the principal, not vice versa.

COURTESY, OBEDIENCE, SELF-CONTROL

1. This is a proposition discussed, formulated, and amended in the Teachers' Councils and recommended to the Principal for trial.

2. Courtesy is so valuable as an asset for success in life that I, a teacher, ought to make it habitual in those under my charge.

3. Silent obedience is a form of courtesy required in business and other organizations, and it is my duty to train this habit.

4. New and substitute teachers should realize that they can have this if they will insist upon it from the first moment and, if failing to get it, will follow this procedure.

5. Select one girl from the group of apparent disturbers; never attempt to cure more than one at a time. Give the scheme a chance to work. Don't talk, don't scold, don't raise your voice. Give her a distinct direction and add "do this silently."

6. If the girl disobeys, send another girl for a hall patrol who will be on that floor or one floor below. The teacher and the hall patrol will then give the girl an opportunity to obey.

7. Hall patrol and teacher fill out a memorandum for record in Bureau of Recommendation: "Smith, Mary, 2B4. Discourteous and disobedient. February 19, 1914. Annie White, teacher. Mary Brown, patrol. Finally obeyed." Patrol files this with the bureau before night.

8. If girls fails, hall patrol will keep her till end of period, giving her an opportunity to add to report: "I regret my disobedience. I intend to follow all directions of Washington Irving teachers without retort or comment. Mary Smith."

9. Remember this is not intended as punishment, but for habit-formation. Don't talk. Don't encourage girl to talk. Treat the case like a doctor, quietly.

10. If the hall patrol cannot reasonably secure this statement, borrow a trustworthy girl from a neighboring room and send the report to the

deputy principal in Room 110. Direct the offending girl to report there immediately.

11. The new or substitute teacher will repeat this over and over as long as the remaining class is not under control. It is not a device aiming at justice or selection of the worst offender or at punishment. It is a demonstration to girls that courtesy and obedience is the inviolable rule.

12. Other teachers should use this plan when they see the need of it. They know the futility of weakening this process by use except in serious cases.

(Approved for trial February 10, 1914.)

Another substitute for the commander-in-chief method of running a school is the extensive use of committees and the frankest abandonment to them of power and responsibility. The best example of successful use of this means known to me is found in the Manual Training High School in Brooklyn. I never saw a school with so large a proportion of teachers able to take up any detail of administration and carry it out so well. The principal once said to me, "The school runs better when I'm gone than when I'm present." That's his joke. But the spirit of the remark shows a notable sanity of judgment as to which is of greater value, a man or a school. That principal prefers teachers in co-operative action instead of in the more primitive condition of soldiers working under orders. It is easier to obey commands than it is to co-operate. The general opinion, as I have found it in the eastern states, is that a directed school is a more perfect organization than a self-directed one. Of course, it all turns on whether you want teachers to be soldiers under a general or to be a republic, with you as their executive officer to carry out resolutions; whether you want to be able to say, "L'école, c'est moi," or to admit that the service is so different in complexity and purpose from that of a monarchy that diversity and abundance of thought ought to be desired, looked for, and encouraged.

You may be a follower of Carlyle and hold that progress needs a strong man, a hero, and that in the premises you are it, or you may go to the other extreme of Benson in the *College Window* and exclaim, "Better educational anarchy than this dead maintenance of tradition." You will not lack eminent opinion to support the old view that the masterful personality, the commanding character, the leader, is essential for advance. You can also find much to

make you believe that under the leadership theory the schools have been woefully retarded behind the needs of the times.

Cure for love of limelight.—If you ask a number of sensible friends: "What is your idea of the advantage of printing the schoolmaster's portrait in the school publications or in the town newspaper or of putting his name in print?" you may get the same consensus of opinion that I have obtained, to wit: that it is naught. That is, the main purpose in the service into which you have entered is not benefited by these acts. This seems to be the general opinion. The use of these devices is for you, personally, and not for the cause you serve. They do not add glory to the school. On the contrary, it is the importance of the school that gives the portrait its distinction. "All over the country," says Jean Winslow, "schoolmasters are using their schools as billboards to advertise themselves." But even the poorest staff of teachers does something to make a school valuable. There is, therefore, an unearned increment of credit which every schoolmaster gets through the fact of being master. If he capitalizes it for himself he is a grafter. The head of the most noted endowed school in Brooklyn says to the reporter: "I don't want to be mentioned. Speak of the institution all you like, praise it or blame it, but respect the co-operative spirit which we are trying to increase and which you know is the essential excellence all good Americans want fostered. Don't degrade it by ignoring it in favor of the old monarchy or leadership idea. Don't babyfy me by assuming that, whatever I say, I am internally desirous that you advertise me." A man who wishes to mortify his love of limelight can do a good deal of good to his school in teachers' meetings by having always teacher-chairmen and by sitting among the teachers and by keeping as quiet as he knows how. He can keep off the stage in assembly exercises and have all his functions exercised by teachers and children. Everything he knows that ought to be said he can get said by them. It will always in my lifetime be necessary for some one person to address others and to instruct them, but it is not at all necessary or desirable that the prominence of this function should appear in me. By telling one person today, another tomorrow, what effect is desired, I can distribute the practice of direction and diminish the plague of my own conceit.

Cure of general egotism.—Obviously, all these individual cures I have suggested are remedies for various manifestations of egotism. Some of the displays are unconscious imitations of acts not intentionally egotistic, but handed down from a time when all forms of efficient organization were monarchical. But it seems recognized that the purpose of education is to mature its beneficiaries, and consequently the qualities that require people to be ruled by a personal monarch are disappearing and the autocrat's characteristics in the schoolmaster are becoming traces of outworn usefulness. We may now have reached that point of educational advance in which the continuance of these manifestations in the master may be real obstacles to the further progress of education itself. Evidently these old practices do foster and increase egotism. Without doubt egotism is the opposite of the spirit of educational service. And for that reason suggestions for the cure of the schoolmaster's egotism are highly proper considerations for an educational association like yours. "I knew he was an educator," says Mr. Shaw, "because he was talking the whole time about himself." This seems as absurd as to say, "I knew he was a teetotaler, for he was describing the taste of cocktails." Egotism in a schoolmaster should seem like vice in a clergyman. For what is systematic education but organized unselfishness? Its whole aim and processes are the assisting, guiding, and training of others. It would not hurt the schoolmaster to blot the personal pronoun out of half of his vocabulary. A man who makes his living on the stage sang for us. One class came into assembly after we was introduced. A girl rose at the close of the concert and said: "Sir, might we ask your name?" "Why, that is no matter," said he, "if you enjoyed the songs; that's what it was for." Yet that man's name was money in pocket for him. What a pity that of the two characters in *The Deserted Village*, the schoolmaster and the minister, it was not our brother professional whose motto was "do good by stealth and blush to find it fame."

The cure for selfishness is obviously the conscious and persistent practice of centering one's mind upon others with intent to see their excellences and to build upon them. Why shall an administrator not try to produce the largest number of teachers who can stand on their own feet, who can go on without direction, who can take the

principal's place, who are even evident suggestions of more administrative ability than he? Why not get the greater motive of public service so devoted as to drown idea of self entirely? This partakes of the nature of religious fervor. But that is what you conceive education to be: not a display, not the business of the pedant, not a machine for a big man to tend, but the manifestation of a tremendous human impulse toward the common good. For "only the spirit can teach"—no self-advertiser, no peddler of his portraits, no boss, no general, no authority, no self-centered man whose appetite is for power and publicity. He is an error, an obstacle, a plague, the heritage of a mistaken past. Forget him.

James B. Angell was for the most of his lifetime the president of the University of Michigan, the first of the great free universities and the mother of the great family of state institutions of higher education. He secured and guided the development of about every sort of improvement that universities have enjoyed in the past fifty years. Every week or two during the past decade some alumnus or other has importuned "Prexy" Angell to write his autobiography. At last the book came out. He called it "Reminiscences." One after another the great achievements of the university are recounted, but in each case it runs something like this: "In 1870 Professors Tyler and Frieze became especially interested in the possibilities of establishing a chair of so and so at Ann Arbor." Then he goes on to describe the success of the movement. The old men know who chiefly interested Professors Tyler and Frieze in the project; the old men know that for everything worth while in the history of the university President Angell was working his best, which was unsurpassed by any other person, but nowhere in his book can you find by claim or by indirection that the author of the book was the instigator and chief agent of the works he describes. Nor ever in the thirty years during which I have heard him deliver addresses or talk to groups or to me have I heard him say, "I did this," or "I did that." His abstinence from doing so marks him as a gentleman. Angell's habit marks him as a strong man conserving his strength for his service. The inevitable effect of one's claiming credit for himself is to alienate support from his cause; Angell's self-silence stamps him as a world-force, for he was more

intent that good should come than that it should be known through whom the good was coming.

On three separate occasions I have watched Wirt, a young man, an educator, a business man, a financier, a social engineer. I have never heard this quiet school man say, "I did this; I did that," but always "our" schools, "our" idea. The book of manners says "mention not yourself." The manners are good in Gary.

So, in conclusion, let us come back to the suggestion with which we began, that the realization of the sense of personal superiority must result in the inferiority of others. It belongs to the childhood of the race and not to a mature civilization. The hero, rejoicing in his prominence, is not a picture for manhood, but a memory of human babydom. The cry, "Lo, I am Ozymandias, let all the world behold me and despair!" is of a piece with the childish boast, "Me heap big injun, me!" You were not born into this world for the lifting-up of one, but of whole companies of men and women. Your daily business thrusts the fact insistently before your face by giving you numbers whose care and training and nurture is your only pre-eminent concern. Its natural successful doing must pull you out and away from primitive and uncivilized ideas. If it is your nature to revert to traditional selfishness, then you must war against nature, lest it hamper and delay the main business of your life and irrevocably make a mess of it altogether. For the whole essence of education, so far as you are employed for it, is other-mindedness. The knowledge that those engaged in it have made in any respect the typical teacher, because of self-conceit, an object of contempt, is for you a vital and impelling thought. The cure is the most simple thing in the world. It involves the control of that which is of all things the most readily controlled by our own wills, to wit, our own thoughts, which we can turn whithersoever we desire—upon ourselves, our elevation, our fame, our glory, or where, in this business it belongs, on "*les autres, là, de bon vouloir servir.*"

THE TEACHING OF IDEALS¹

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The specific aspect of the subject which I shall discuss may perhaps best be called "The Teaching of Social and Civic Ideals," and I am going to speak of it with special reference to our high-school problems. It is not necessary to say that during the last ten years we have been living in an atmosphere very different from that which some of us remember in college and public life. The whole decade has been full of challenge to the existing order and standards. Underneath has been developing a new idealism, which has not always found recognition or expression. For the President of the United States to appeal to Congress to rescind its former action upon the matter of tolls for the Panama Canal, and to base this appeal simply upon the fact that other nations understand the treaty in a certain way, is one of the latest illustrations of a higher ideal of honor. I believe that the American people will support that stand. A change in attitude, a change in civic and political morality, has been coming on, although we may not have been fully aware of it. It is our possibility and opportunity as teachers to help in interpreting to our children this new social and civic consciousness in which we are living. The ideals which we are to teach should help our children to become themselves active workers in bringing better things into the age in which they are to work.

The ideals we teach must have at least three characteristics: In the first place, we are training pupils for citizenship in a democratic country. The other addresses of the day have sounded the democratic note so clearly that it is not necessary for me to expand this point. Indeed, as Principal McAndrew's doctrines are put into practice we may perhaps hear, from the teachers and pupils of some of the schools represented here, a testimony like that of

¹ Read at the meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association, Cambridge, Massachusetts, March 7, 1914.

the washwoman whose husband had formerly been severe in his methods of conjugal discipline. A social worker induced the husband to sign the pledge and a little later asked the wife how matters were going. "It's a different place," said the wife; "I'd hardly know John; he's more like a friend than a husband." Yet it is necessary to reiterate that we are not to teach ideals to those who are to form a subject class, and need only to learn obedience to authority. Our children, the children of our high schools, are to be among the rulers of a community which is constantly obliged to change and make its own laws and take its own responsibilities.

In the second place, any ideals which we now teach our children must be moving and not static ideals. This is a rapidly moving country, and the particular civic problems which we have before us are not to be met by the "old-fashioned" civic virtues. Take, for example, the evils of the cities. Before the reasons for these evils had come to be so generally known as they are today, Dr. Eliot pointed out that some of the great difficulties came because our cities were attempting to do things in which we had previously had no experience. That was true twenty-five years ago, and is more emphatically true today, with our enormous cities and our great industrial development. Only by constant study of the changing conditions of our life can we discover and frame ideals of righteousness, justice, and truth which will guide our boys and girls in their tasks as citizens.

In the third place, the ideals we teach must take firm hold upon reality. The founder of idealism was sometimes wont to insist upon the pure and separate character of ideals. Plato set before us the good and just, distinctly and clearly modeled like the statue made by the artist. There is a gain in thus getting an ideal clearly before us out in the open. It is a good thing that people have one day in the week different from the others. But, after all, any ideal that is separate and detached pays a penalty. The constant criticism of such ideals is that they tend to discourage those who take them up; that they are held for a while and then abandoned. We are not to teach pupils something that is merely pretty to look at and admire while they are in school, but rather something that is to be a working principle of life.

What are the agencies which the teacher can use in the teaching of ideals? The first agency is as old as the human race, the agency of group life and group influence. It is commonplace, of course, to speak about the groups into which we are born and which later receive us: the family, the school, the playmates, the athletic team, the church, the college, the political party, the profession. Every one of these groups is founded upon some ideal; its influence is not merely the influence of one or the other individual upon his fellow; it is that of the idea for which the group as a whole is standing and which it deems proper. The lawyer who does not meet the code of his professional ethics feels something stronger than individual disapproval of the members of his profession. He feels in some way that he has betrayed the whole profession. The boy in school, on an athletic team, or in any of his other groups, who does not conform to the standards of that group, feels more than the individual pressure upon him. He feels the condemnation of the group as a unit. Arnold of Rugby was the first to see the full significance of that and to use it. The English public schools have since followed along that line. They use their school groups as perhaps their greatest agency. There are some evils in school life that we cannot help in any other way. Cheating in examinations is one. I do not know anything about the high schools in the East, but in the high schools in the West there is altogether too much dishonesty. We may talk to our children and get their parents to talk to them until the end of doom, but we can never secure honesty in school examinations except through the aid of a group spirit supporting and enforcing a group standard of honor. We know what certain colleges have done in maintaining the honor system by the students themselves. Just at present, the students at the University of Chicago are trying to instal it. We have a very difficult university in which to introduce it because we are so heterogeneous a body. A powerful public opinion is not so easily created. Yet I have strong hope that our students will put the work through.

Of course there are often ideals of school honor which are much in need of enlightenment. The story has been told of a high-school boy who played on a team when ineligible, and who pleaded in

excuse: "I thought the honor of the school was at stake; we had to win that game."

It is a difficult task to change such standards of honor, and yet it is just this difficult thing that has to be done if the most effective teaching of ideals of certain kinds is to be brought into play at all. The advantage of the general group influence is that it is a tremendous power to action, and that it will steady the one who needs support. Lord Haldane, who came from England to address the American Bar Association last summer, impressively stated the importance of the *Sittlichkeit*, the habitual morality of a people. We all, old as well as young, need its support to keep us in line on occasions of especial stress or sudden temptation. Build such a *Sittlichkeit* in your school groups.

But group morality has its serious defects. It is not likely to be progressive. It is more likely to enforce the old than to grasp for the new. And again the ideal of the group is not usually what the best members of the group cherish in their best moments; it is what the group as a whole is ready to stand by. Teachers of morality, therefore, have sought other methods, methods that should be more flexible, and should represent the higher reaches of aspiration. The first of these Plato found in use in the education of his day. Indeed it is far older than Plato. Art and literature have been used by primitive peoples to impress ideals of courage upon the young. Dr. Charles Eastman in his *Indian Boyhood* tells how he was taught to love heroism, to admire the brave, successful hunter and warrior, by all the tales of the bravery of his ancestors with which his grandmother filled his youthful imagination. This agency is especially valuable in the earlier years of the high school. We can go a little farther in our appreciation of it than Plato seems to go. He sees in it an appeal to habit and emotion. He would have music and rhythm steal their way into the very fiber of the child's life, "by harmony making them harmonious, by rhythm rhythmical." But he regards art as a sort of imitation. When listening to music or drama, he thought, the mind is largely passive and does not penetrate to principles. Nor does the artist himself grasp reality. We, on the other hand, are quick to assert that the great artist sees not less but more than

other men. The imagination in both its scientific and its artistic use helps build new realms of thought and action. If human progress means constantly exchanging the meager world of past limitation and past habit for a freer and more adequate life, then the vision of the artist and the scientist may work together. The world which they build is more real because it is the world that is to be. Great characters have been citizens of such a world, and to bring a boy or girl to know them means an introduction into the world of larger horizons, of finer perceptions, of working ideals.

But art and literature none the less have their limitation. Enthusiasm is likely to pass, unless there is not only a vision to be seen but a work to be done. As the method of scientific study comes to claim a larger and larger share in school life, it must be drawn into moral education if this is to claim the respect of the pupil. We must make an intellectual as well as an emotional appeal. Let us then name as a third agency in teaching ideals the study of the problems of life by a *scientific, constructive* method.

The scientific, constructive method in dealing with ideals means first of all recognizing what there is in actual life, business, industry, law, government, which is good, how this good has got here, and on what basis it rests. Second, it means a frank and open criticism of defects in our present life. Third, it means definite planning how to remedy these defects. We cannot expect to get ideals adopted simply by presenting them. As Professor Palmer has wisely said: "We rarely foresee the future of ourselves as the architect sees that of his building. . . . Usually the first prompter of action is an apprehension of some need, impoverishment, or pain. . . . Everywhere some restriction, limit, or need is our prompter to personal progress."

These statements, which may sound vague when made in general terms, will be clearer if we illustrate them from the two great fields of business and politics. There can be little question that a scientific and constructive method is needed in both. The most striking fact about business, particularly, is the confusion in our standards. In private life, as President Hadley has pointed out in his *Standards of Public Morality*, the American gentleman is on the whole generous, humane, and, in times of crisis, heroic. In

public, he is too often hard, forgetful of the other man. And certain investigations into business and political affairs have not yielded a reassuring result. Practices not long since considered good business are now crimes by law. A prominent man finds himself in danger of being prosecuted for acts which he says would in other countries be rewarded by the state. Words which have been watchwords in our history seem to be ambiguous. Congress aims to secure liberty and passes a certain law providing that a corporation shall not discharge a man because he belongs to a trade union. The Supreme Court holds that this is an infringement of liberty "which no government can justify in a free land." To be sure, it was liberty of association which Congress sought and liberty of contract which the court insisted upon. But who can wonder if common minds do not always see just what kind of liberty is part of our national ideal?

What can we do to clarify and construct better working ideals in the field of business? First, let us show how much morality is actually involved in business as this is now carried on. We talk a great deal about the evils of business life; it is easy to forget the good. I think the good and evil are almost like the iceberg; it is the smaller part that shows. Think of the great system of banking with the confidence involved. Think of the system of insurance contracts which guarantee to my wife or children when I am gone the benefit of my care. Contrast this with the distrust which prevails in savage life. Consider our whole system of trusteeship and the duties of agents. The more we can make these things clear to the minds of our prospective business men the more clearly we can show them that their whole life is to be built on moral structures that are solid, that are here because business cannot be supported without them. Such ideals are not fancies of the classroom. They are as real and stubborn as the laws of mathematics or of gravitation.

Or take an illustration from another part of business life; consider competition. This is one of the living questions which every boy or girl must face. There is also the advantage that it enters into the problems of school life, in scholarship, in athletics, and in social affairs of all kinds. Is competition right and good, or is it

wrong and bad? Instead of attempting to give a sweeping answer is it not possible to study in detail just what it does and what it does not do? It is easy for the boy to see that the school will get a better football team if men are tried out for the positions than if they are selected by lot, or because of the social standing of their parents. It is not difficult to see that in business if competition gets the right man into the right place or if it leads to discoveries of new inventions and better methods, it is an agency of progress.

But the other side of competition can be just as clearly seen. What is the most important thing for the athletic team? Very likely the first answer will be "to win the game." But it does not take a long process of questioning to bring out the answer that there is one thing more important, that is the game itself. And the game itself is absolutely impossible except on the assumption of fair play. When competition in business is made to mean, not winning by a better method, but defeating the other man at any cost, it is easy to see that we are ruining the game. Unless business can mean a larger, nobler life, it is like playing "dirty ball" and no pretext that competition is a law of nature can justify its methods.

Or consider the political ideals. Liberty now as in earlier years is one of the deepest demands of life. It is an ideal that we want to put before the children. It is something that no one who comes to Cambridge and stands in Memorial Hall can forget. But we can show the children that there is a liberty which they may help to work out. The liberty of 1776 was chiefly a liberty against control by political forces. We can show that today we require liberty in other lines. The danger of ignorance is much greater than the danger of oppression by foreign power. Our fathers were afraid that religious liberty might be invaded by government. Today it is not government but the machine which compels a man to work seven days in the week and deprives him of religious liberty. To think out these things step by step with our pupils is an effective way of teaching what I have called a constructive and scientific ideal.

So again of democracy. Democracy has always held up an ideal of equality. This equality in 1776 meant that no one is so

superior by birth and privilege that he has a divine right to rule another; it was in a certain sense negative. Today the point which needs emphasis is not that no one else is superior to us. It is rather that we must if possible make every citizen as nearly equal to the best as we can. We cannot successfully carry on democratic government except by this constant leveling-up, this constructive ideal.

In such ways we can make our idealism real and vital. Ideals which are built by the children on the basis of actual values, of discovered defects, and of pressing needs will not be easily cast aside as fanciful and imaginary; they will in many at least be a living power for the whole working life.

Why have I said nothing as to the personality of the teacher as an agency in the teaching of ideals? Because I have felt that this is so fundamental that it must be assumed in all the agencies rather than dealt with as a thing apart. All these other agencies are ways through which the teacher works. Group life and group standards are almost certain to be indifferent and may be bad without the right sort of help from the teacher. Lives of great men, images of literature, are likely to be lifeless things except as they are made reanimate through the living voice and living person. Discussions of business and politics may be cold and formal unless they come from a teacher who is actually interested in the life of his community.

I am always fascinated by the fresco which stands for Philosophy in the Boston Public Library. If you remember, it is Plato in conversation with a youth. Philosophy, however, did not mean for Plato a technical tradition. It meant love of wisdom and truth and above all love of the good. We may then put for Plato any teacher and we have in the fresco the symbol of his task and its method. For some of our ideals men have found symbols in single figures of beauty, of wisdom, or of justice. But for the teaching of ideals the true symbol is that of the two figures in friendly converse. It is in this common pursuit, this common task, that we can achieve the results which all true teachers crave. By such teaching we can do our part in the great social movement that is now going on.

THE TEACHING OF IDEALS^{*}

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I infer from the fact that the topic "The Teaching of Ideals" has been selected for discussion this afternoon that there is a very general recognition among the teaching profession that the time is ripe for some shifting of the emphasis in education from the intellectual to the moral part of man. Although I do not suppose that it is necessary to argue for the importance of moral education, you will perhaps bear with me if I remind you of certain things which we must all take for granted in this discussion. In the first place, the most important thing about a man is what he cares for; what he places first; what he prefers. This is going to determine, more than anything else, what a man *does*—what part he plays in society and in life. Are we to allow the end which a man adopts to be the result of chance influences, or are we to see to it that his end, like his judgment and his opinions, is formed, in part at least, by enlightened guidance? You are familiar with at least the first two pages of Aristotle's *Ethics*. You will recall that Aristotle says that every vocation has an end of its own. The end of shipbuilding is the ship; the end of industry is wealth. If this is the case, says Aristotle, it must follow that there is some end which is similarly related to that general vocation which we must all adopt—the vocation, namely, of human life. It is the necessity of considering this fundamental question with what light is available that is the most fundamental justification of moral education.

But there are several reasons which make moral education peculiarly necessary at the present time. It is obvious that authority is much shaken, that established ideals, whether of church or state or social caste, have a diminished weight. In a democratic community, like our own, we cannot even trust much to the principle of honor or *noblesse oblige*. In the place of these

^{*} Read at the meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association, Cambridge, Massachusetts, March 7, 1914.

authorities we have the characteristic and novel phenomenon of vogue—novel, at any rate, in the proportions which it has reached. Vogue is less reliable than authority or even custom. While it exerts all the enormous force of social opinion and imitation, it may be quite arbitrary and capricious in its sources. All of these considerations argue the necessity of conscious guidance in the matter of moral ideals. We may add the increasing strain on the moral fiber of individuals, which is due to the growing complexity of our social and industrial life. We may add also the fact that the great unsolved problems of the day, the problems which as citizens we are asked to solve, are ethical problems. Our most important political and economic questions are at bottom ethical questions.

Turning now from the need of moral education, what can be said of the resources at our command? The comparative emphasis upon the intellectual side of education in the period just closing may be said to reflect the characteristics of psychology. Scientific psychology has tended to emphasize the introspective and cognitive aspect of the mental life. An important change now appears to be taking place. We hear much of what is called "functional" and "behaviorist" psychology. It is becoming characteristic of this science to think of human nature in the dynamic rather than in the static way; to regard mind as essentially an organ or means of adaptation in which cognition is only part of a process which, in its totality, is active or practical. In addition to this general tendency, it is possible to set down a summary of psychological conclusions which may be employed in moral education. The science of human nature has latterly become so complicated that one is, I think, surprised to find out how much unanimity of opinion may actually be found. I believe that it is not incorrect to say that there is a fairly definite idea of human nature, different from that generally accepted a generation or so ago, but now regarded as settled fact. Let me sum up briefly what I take to be this new idea. The lower stratum of human nature is made up of a very rich manifold of impulses, which are largely identical in form with those of animal life. These primitive impulses are neither virtuous nor vicious. They constitute the raw material out of which either virtuous or vicious living may be organized. They

constitute the link, not only between man and the animal kingdom, but between man and his savage ancestors. These impulses are congenital and, although useful, tend to be blind or automatic. They bring man to act without calculation of consequences. In respect to this fundamental stratum of his nature, man does not seek pleasure, or act consciously on grounds of self-interest, but does things simply because he possesses the native impulses so to act. But these primitive impulses, although they are specific, are also plastic. They may be modified and combined in various ways and so enter into what we call "second nature." Thus, the instinct of pugnacity may be so modified as to assume the form of a habit of killing Mexicans with a six-shooter drawn from one's hip pocket; or it may be combined with love of property, the love of kind, and with other like instincts to form a sentiment of patriotism.

The importance of this for moral education lies in the following fact: If these primitive impulses lie beneath the surface of man's habitual and rationalized life, it follows that a man may be moved, controlled, or molded by one who knows how to appeal to them. As springs of action they may be set off by one who knows how to touch them. Furthermore, if these primitive impulses may be developed through experience into a "second nature," it follows that by the deliberate use of similar influences this "second nature" may, to some extent, be remade or be reconstructed. It is a matter of first importance to distinguish between those aspects of human nature which are secondary and acquired and which are, therefore, a function of external influences, and those primitive and inalienable aspects which must be regarded as ultimate and fatal.

When it comes to the use which is to be made of such knowledge of human nature, I hold it to be very important to distinguish between what can be called the "paternalistic" and the "fraternalistic" methods of moral education. Your method is paternalistic when you keep your knowledge to yourself and use it to control and regulate some other human being for ends which you do not impart to your victim. Your aim may be benevolent, that is to say, you may suppose that you know what is good for your victim better than he can know himself, but this does not affect the principle. By the fraternalistic method, on the other hand, I mean that procedure in which I take my victim into my confidence.

But in this case, of course, he ceases to be a victim, and we work together with a common knowledge for a common end.

I take it that, up to a certain point, moral education must be paternalistic. There must be a period, more or less prolonged, in which the teacher knows the end and in which the child cannot possibly understand it. During this period it is necessary that moral education should have a victim. It is necessary that the child should be regarded simply as material to be made into something. And during this period the parent or teacher, through his knowledge of the child's springs of action, may play upon his impulses and evoke action that will tend toward the formation of sound ideals and virtuous habits. Certainly moral education in this paternalistic phase can accomplish much. If any of you are interested in the political uses of the same method, I commend to you Mr. Graham Wallas' *Human Nature in Politics*. It is full of information and illustration drawn from direct acquaintance with political procedure. You will learn there how politicians have more or less unconsciously played upon the instincts and primitive impulses of the voters.

But I want more especially to say that one should regard this paternalistic phase of moral education as a phase to be outgrown as soon as possible. One should endeavor to reach that relation between teacher and taught in which the end is mutually recognized, and the means mutually understood; so that both may work together, and there may be no victim, because both are admitted to one another's confidence. After all, I suspect that one need not in these days be fearful of excessive paternalism. There is a strong disinclination to be victimized, which would save most men from falling victims to those who are versed in the new psychology. A young man came into my office not long ago and, assuming a serious and sympathetic air, sat down by my desk and said, "What do you think of Emerson?" Quite unsuspecting, I allowed myself to be drawn out on that and kindred subjects. Finally, however, my visitor confessed that he was a student of the art of salesmanship. Someone had told him that it was very important to gain the confidence of the prospective purchaser by drawing him into general conversation, and so this young man saw a certain advantage in the knowledge of literature, history, and

other humanistic studies; they might supply conversational resources by which to put your victim off his guard. What I want especially to bring out is this: that from the moment that this young man betrayed himself I refused to be his victim. In my reaction to his mode of approach I represented what I suppose would be the typical human reaction. The moment we suspect that our stops are being fretted in order to make music for someone else we resent it, as Hamlet resented the approaches of Rosencrantz and Guildenstern. My behavior illustrates the way in which the abuse of the knowledge of human nature may be corrected or prevented, viz., by the wide circulation of that knowledge. In a community where enlightenment is diffused, and new knowledge becomes at once common property, there are not going to be many victims.

One final word, in which again I wish to emphasize the fraternal principle in moral education. In moral education of this sort you impart to him whom you seek to teach the reasons for what you admire and deem virtuous. As a teacher of ethics, I have had the experience that the most important principles, because they are the most commonplace, tend to be hopelessly dull. How is one to make so humdrum a matter as virtue interesting? Of course one may avail one's self of external association. If you are going to teach a child to put his knife and fork down in a certain way on the plate, or to stand in the presence of his elders, you are forced to recognize the entire arbitrariness of the matter, and have no alternative but to invent fictitious reasons, or to appeal to the child's instinct of play by making a game of it. But as Quick has said, it is only the poorer sort of hand-organ which requires a monkey. Is the monkey necessary in the case of virtue? For one, I believe that it is not. I believe that the best means of making virtue interesting, as soon as you have to do with an awakened mind, is to show that it is *true*. If virtue were mere convention, it would indeed be hopelessly dull, or only fictitiously interesting. But virtue is the principle of effective living. In teaching it one may make it interesting by demonstrating its works, by illustrating from life the truth that the "wages of sin is death," or that prudence is the cause of health and efficiency, or that justice will actually promote a harmonious society, or that humanity and devotion are effective in the furtherance of civilization and progress.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held its regular annual meeting at the La Salle Hotel in Chicago from March 18 to March 21. This Association holds its general sessions following the meeting of the Inspectors of High Schools and the meeting of the Commission. The Inspectors meet in executive session and prepare the list of approved high schools for the Association. They also point out from year to year changes needed in the rules of accrediting. This year they called attention to the desirability of redefining the units used by the Association, and they also recommended a very material modification of the blank which was used this year for high-school reports.

The Commission held its meetings on Thursday afternoon and evening. This body passes upon the report of the Inspectors and also prepares an approved list of colleges. The list of colleges approved for the ensuing year included several new institutions and dropped a number of institutions that were on the list last year. More significant, however, than the preparing of the list for this year was the adoption of a plan for the coming year under which all institutions giving instruction to high-school graduates shall be listed with reference to their actual equipment and work. In other words, instead of deciding whether an institution conforms to certain standards set up beforehand, the effort will be made next year to define each institution in terms of its own organization and to report the complete finding with regard to each institution to the Commission. The Commission also recommended to the Association co-operation with the Bureau of Education in this important matter of discussing the possible classification of colleges.

The general meetings of the Association were held on Friday and Saturday. At these general meetings the work of the Inspectors and the Commission was finally passed upon, and certain independent discussions were undertaken.

In his presidential address Professor Scott criticized severely the present effort to measure educational activities. He defended the thesis that there are many spiritual values which cannot be quantitatively estimated. Following the president's address a committee of high-school men reported the experiments of many schools in working out

a program of extension of the high school downward through the adoption of the junior college plan and upward through the development of advanced courses covering the ground now commonly covered in the first two years of college. The committee recommended a vigorous campaign of study and propaganda along this line. The committee was continued and the matter is to be carried forward during the coming year.

The second problem with which the Association dealt at the general meeting was the problem of admitting conditioned students to college. The whole matter was canvassed by various college officers. It was pointed out that special students who are admitted because of their maturity and interest in gaining a mastery of particular subjects are to be sharply distinguished from students who on account of immaturity and poor preparation cannot satisfy entrance conditions. The discussion resulted in a change in one of the college standards so as to make it evident that the Association is not in favor of admission of conditioned students who have less than fourteen of the units which the Association regards as essential in a complete high-school program.

Another report was received from a committee which was appointed to consider the high-school units as accepted by the redefinition of the Association. The significant recommendation of this committee was that there should be a distinction between advanced high-school work and work given in the earlier years of the high-school course. Such a distinction as this would make it impossible for a student to take as the chief elements of his course mere elementary work.

The morning session on Saturday was devoted to a discussion of moral education in the high school.

The significance of this Association in bringing colleges and secondary schools into close co-operation can hardly be overestimated. The standards of the Association affect about one-half of the high-school population of the United States. It is gratifying to note the evidences of flexibility in the redefinition and administration of these standards and to observe the freedom with which both the high-school and the college points of view are represented in all the discussions.

C. H. J.

THE LONGER DAY FOR SUPERVISED STUDY

The Massachusetts High-School Masters' Club unanimously approved the report of a committee, Frederick W. Plummer, of Fall River, chairman, based upon a recommendation of the Barnard Club

of Boston, the intent of which is to improve the quality of work in the high school. This recommendation is as follows:

That the school day be lengthened to six hours, either in two sessions or in one with a half-hour interval for lunch, depending on the conditions in the community. That the periods be substantially one hour in length and that they consist of study and teaching largely, with less stress laid on the recitation. That the teacher use part of the period in teaching pupils how to study on the ground that they need much more help in this primary occupation of the intellectual life than they do in the much less important act of reciting. That they use another part in individual instruction for those who need it.

Mr. Plummer's committee reports that it is advisable to supplement the kind of supervised study indicated above by home study, especially in the last two years of the high-school course:

This method of supervised study needs to be supplemented by home study, especially during the third and fourth years and for those pupils who are preparing for college. While your committee admits the great need of teaching pupils how to study and of reducing the evils of the recitation, it also sees the need of more independent work, especially in the upper grades of the high school, without which there can be no true scholarship. The committee therefore recommends that for the last two years more time be taken for the recitation, and that home work be assigned.

As an alternative for schools that cannot adopt the longer day the committee recommends a plan which is already in use in St. Paul and in other western cities:

It is possible to obtain the services of one or two high-grade teachers to conduct afternoon study periods for the benefit of pupils in the first and second years of the high school. Only those pupils whose marks fall below passing need this extra supervision. They should be required to come back for this purpose and can be excused from the requirement just as soon as their work shows sufficient improvement.

TEACHERS SHARE IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

William McAndrew, principal of the Washington Irving High School, New York City, on p. 315 of this issue, sets forth the reasons for allowing teachers to have a large part in the management of a school. The Teachers' League of New York has announced an invitation to all teachers and principals of the city to take steps toward organizing "Teacher Councils." Such councils are now in operation in several public schools; also in the De Witt Clinton High School, Manhattan;

the Boys' High School, Brooklyn; and in Jamaica High School, Queens. Teachers and principals in these schools speak favorably of the work of the councils.

In urging the further adoption of the plan, the Teachers' League offers the following suggestions:

I. ORGANIZATION OF THE COUNCIL

The members of the Council should be elected by the teachers of the school. The number of members might vary from four to nine. In order to increase the efficiency of the Council, co-operating committees including a considerable number of teachers might be appointed by the Council. Members should be elected for terms of one year, but they should not be eligible to election for more than two consecutive terms. Schools might introduce the principle of the recall.

II. WORK OF THE COUNCIL

The teachers and the principal should offer to the Council suggestions calling attention to the problems characteristic of the particular school. The Council should itself or through its co-operating committees study these problems and others discovered by its own efforts and make recommendations for consideration and decision by the teachers and the principal. Some of these problems might develop out of the need of adaptive courses of study or of better methods of teaching or out of the need of definite knowledge of the amount and kind of work teachers can do well under the conditions prevailing in the school; some problems might arise out of the need of determining what pupils can do with given mental and physical equipment, and under the conditions of their surroundings.

III. VALUE OF THE COUNCIL

The participation of teachers in the management of the school will tend to convert red tape into co-operation. It will inevitably awaken a professional attitude toward teachers. It will develop the spirit of democracy in the school. It will increase the teacher's self-respect, and will result in stimulating teachers to take greater interest in their work.

LIMITING THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS

The *Nation* makes the following comment upon the systematic study of college efficiency recently made by Oberlin:

For the college to render its full service to society it must contemplate a limitation of the numbers in its main or academic department. The growth of Oberlin has been from 405 students in 1900, through 977 in 1910, to slightly more than 1,000 today. Notwithstanding a doubling of the re-

sources of the institution, this growth has prevented the average size of classes from falling below 26.5—manifestly too large; it has decreased the proportion of full professors to students from one to 27 in 1900 to one to 44.4 in 1910; it has resulted in a deterioration of faculty supervision of student life and work; and it has made inadequacies in equipment more painfully apparent. "Whether the enlargement . . . of the quantity of the service rendered, in view of the quality, has been an unmixed blessing," the report concludes, is very seriously to be questioned. The significance of the recommended restriction is in its novelty; of 35 institutions of a status similar to Oberlin's, only two—and they women's colleges—could report a limitation. The position of many or all, as regards endowment, may be more fortunate, and one wonders if several would not arrive at the same decision as Oberlin if they should conduct an investigation of the same character and thoroughness.

EXAMINATIONS

Mrs. Jane Pollock Anderson of the Kenilworth (Illinois) High School, in a paper read before the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, expresses the hope that the final examination will "die out, with other useless antiquities." Mrs. Anderson asks several questions and propounds answers for each.

1. Is the examination to find out where the teacher has been lacking? If so, it is unjust that the pupil should receive the mark that belongs to the teacher.

2. Is the examination to compel the pupils to make a thorough review? This can be done more effectively by taking a definite section of the review each day for the last week.

3. Is it to determine how well the pupil can control himself, how well he can write when pressed for time? This demands that the teacher know what the pupil knows before he takes the test.

4. Is the object to give questions we are certain the pupils know? Is it to give questions we are certain they do not know? Is it our purpose to find out exactly what they do know? For all this information, a good teacher who has associated with her pupils for four or for eight months ought not to be compelled to depend upon the result of final examination.

Underlying all these questions, there seems to be the unwarranted assumption that credit is to be determined solely by means of a final examination. Very rarely is this the case. The ordinary consideration is one-half upon the pupils' daily work, and one-half upon various tests scattered throughout the term, together with a final examination. The final examination often receives far less than this proportion of weight in determining the final mark. Moreover, it is quite possible

that a skilful teacher, who understands thoroughly the various individuals in her class, may vary the amount of weight she gives certain portions of her record. At any rate, it is quite unfair to decry the merits of the final examination, entirely ignoring the fact that it is, when rightly used, only a supplementary method of estimating credit.

It is idle to think of an examination as an activity wholly distinct from all the other activities of a course. Rather is it to be considered merely the final step in the term's work, the climax of the review week, the culmination of the course itself. Fortunately or unfortunately, most people are so constituted that some definite culminating task ahead makes easier the preparation for that task. To say to a class, "We shall have a thorough review, with no bugaboo of an examination at the end" is likely to produce very unsatisfactory results. To say to them, "We shall attempt to round out the work of the term in our review; each day's work is a part of the examination, and the test on Friday merely completes the review," is placing the examination in the right perspective.

In point here is a report made by the committee of the High-School Masters' Club of Massachusetts concerning the proper basis for determining promotion credit. The report says:

Promotions should be by subjects and based upon the teacher's estimate of a pupil's knowledge of the subject. This estimate should be the result of daily work, informal "tests," and formal examinations with no fixed or relative weight given to each. We believe it unsafe to base this estimate upon daily work alone, for some pupils who talk easily and freely may appear to have more knowledge of a subject than they actually possess. Informal "tests," whether written or oral, to be of the greatest value to the teacher in determining a pupil's knowledge of the subject, should be given without warning. Formal examinations, whether monthly, term, or semiannual, to be of greatest value should be at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours in length. The unreliability of these examinations alone as a basis of promotion is well known to all teachers.

It is said that the examination makes it possible for an incompetent teacher to do injustice to her pupils. This argument has little merit. An incompetent teacher is likely to be unjust in any method of marking. If she considers only the daily recitations, she is far more likely to form an erroneous estimate than she is if she supplements such judgments by the result of a formal and final test. Error can be reduced to a minimum by multiplying methods of estimating a pupil's work. Especially is this true in science and mathematics; answers to examination problems in these subjects are either right or wrong in method and in result. The teacher's liability to error in marking these papers is not great.

Finally, is the purpose of an examination to see how well the pupil can conduct himself in a crisis? To be sure it is. Knowledge is of little value in itself. Working knowledge, power, is the desired end of most instruction. How much information has one at his disposal? how readily can he use that information? how easily can he apply it to a new and untried situation? these are the real tests of the educative process. School crises, called examinations, lay upon pupils the necessity of organizing their powers for successful behavior in emergencies. In this way the examinations come very near paralleling many of the crises of life for which pupils are being prepared. It is important to meet and solve little crises of daily life. Daily recitations and incidental tests parallel such daily crises. The final examination, the culminating step of the formal review, may be looked upon as a large crisis. A worker of high grade must be prepared to meet both kinds of crises. In individual cases of extreme need, the teacher giving an examination can find various means of tempering justice with mercy.

MOTION PICTURES IN THE SCHOOLS

The California State Board of Education has approved a plan to put a motion-picture apparatus in every schoolhouse, "particularly in every country schoolhouse," in the state. The state will also supply to all schools films selected and distributed by the Board of Education. Provisional measures for the incorporation of a school savings-bank system have also received the unanimous indorsement of the Board.

SYSTEMATIZING TEACHERS' INTERVIEWS

A part of the regular work of every teacher is to interview privately pupils who are in difficulty with their courses. Some teachers do this "outside" work systematically; some do it very little. If it is to be done at all it should be systematized. The following plan is in operation at the Liggett School in Detroit:

DIRECTIONS FOR USE OF INTERVIEW SLIPS

1. They must be placed on the desk before 8:30 of the day on which they are to be used. As a definite time is set aside for verifying and classifying these slips, irregular returns are very time-consuming and hence annoying.
2. In asking for afternoon interviews please confine your requests to the afternoon assigned to your department, unless a special arrangement is made with the Principal.

3. Key for checking off purpose of interview on the card:
 - A. To make up work lost through absence.
 - B. To make up an unprepared lesson.
 - C. To help in preparation of notebook.
 - D. To help on advance work.
 - E. To discuss general quality of work.
 - F. To discuss form of work.
 - G. To correct mistakes in recent lesson.
 - H. To explain points not understood.
 - I. Any purpose not included in this list.

Please indicate briefly the general topic.
4. The slips will be returned for a second use if not canceled for the day they are handed in.
5. Please do not ask for interviews at the last period on Friday.

INTERVIEW SLIP

Name	Grade	Hour
Teacher	Date	
Purpose of Interview		
Check A B C D E F G H I		
Remarks:		

Interview: { satisfactory
unsatisfactory _____

Teacher

When such slips are filed in the principal's office they show with perfect clearness what various teachers are doing. They show also what pupils are receiving undue attention and what pupils are most troublesome. In short, these slips make systematic and productive a type of activity which when unsystematized is likely to be irritating to all parties concerned and ineffective because irregular.

C. H. J.

COMMUNICATIONS

To the Editor:

The article of Mr. William R. Price in the February number on "One Cause of Poor Results in Modern-Language Teaching" prompts me to a few words in reply. Mr. Price takes exception to a criticism of mine made several years ago, in which I pointed out that the excessive difficulty of the college-entrance examinations involved of necessity very unsatisfactory results. He offers in his turn an exhibit of ludicrous incapacity on the part of a number of teachers who plan to teach by the direct method. No one can deny that this exhibit is depressing in the extreme, but does it at all establish the point that Mr. Price is trying to make? If it proves anything, it is this: that a number of very incapable people are attempting to teach German or French by the direct method. It is clearly the business of those directly concerned to prevent such people from undertaking a task for which they are not qualified.

But beyond this, do not the very examples that Mr. Price furnishes show conclusively the character of the preliminary work on which these teachers base their claims? What Mr. Price ought to tell us is whether these people are or are not the product of the prevailing college system of modern-language training. If Mr. Price's statistics would enable him to state that all of these people were the product of college courses, carried on exclusively by the direct method, then he might claim that he had in a measure made his point. As things now stand, he has furnished a very powerful argument for the inadequacy of the methods that are prevalent in much of our college work in modern languages.

JULIUS SACHS

TEACHERS COLLEGE, NEW YORK

To the Editor:

In June the question will arise, "Shall I send my daughter to boarding school in September?" The daughter in question may be very sensitive, slow in acquiring book knowledge, or she may be simply lazy. In any case her mother may feel that mingling with other people will cure these faults. There is danger that just the opposite will happen. If the girl is sensitive she may shut herself, turtle-fashion, more tightly in her shell; if she is lazy she will probably shove more responsibility on others at school than she could at home, and thus grow lazier; if she is deficient she can always beg or bribe somebody to work her algebra

or translate her Latin for her. On the other hand, if a sensitive girl were kept at home, and the home made bright and attractive for her company, in playing hostess she would gradually lose her shyness. If the mother of a lazy daughter would spend a little effort in compelling the girl to take her share, however slight, in the household duties, the daughter would soon acquire orderly habits. And if the mother of a seemingly stupid girl would develop in her a talent that lies outside of books, such as sewing or cooking, the girl would regain her self-respect and might develop capability. When will mothers realize that most of their children's faults are due to their own negligence, and, instead of putting greater burdens on the schools, look for and correct the fault in themselves?

Yours very truly, MARIA W. KILLOUGH

BETHLEHEM, PA.

To the Editor:

This year we tried an experiment in vocational guidance in our high school which may be of interest to other school men working on the same problem. We arranged a list of about seven of the leading business men selected on the basis of personality and successful business experience, men who could discuss subjects of law, banking, medicine, insurance, mercantile business, newspaper work, and school work. Then we called a meeting of the high-school boys and proposed a series of meetings for Friday evenings at the high-school chapel about once a month. The great majority of the boys were very much in favor of the plan. When the idea was proposed to the business men it met with an enthusiastic reception. The men took an interest in preparing these informal talks. Each followed a set outline covering the points of disposition, habits, training, preparation, experience, duties, advancement, remuneration, and opportunities for social service, taking about forty minutes for the talk and then throwing the meeting open for questions from the boys. The meetings have proved exceedingly interesting to the boys. As nearly as possible we have used a similar plan for the girls, taking up the subjects of office work, nursing, teaching, library work, etc. The scheme has been just as popular with the girls as with the boys.

This arrangement for vocational guidance seems to recommend itself to the high school for three reasons: it provides the boys with definite, reliable information regarding different occupations, it connects the school and the community more closely, and is well adapted to fit the needs and possibilities of any community.

H. T. STEEPER

ABILENE, KAN.

BOOK REVIEWS

Graded French Method. By WILLIAM F. GIESE. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1913.

The author has fully realized his aim which is to make a feeling for the language the basis of grammatical knowledge, and this feeling in turn is to be acquired by copious reading. The grammar principles treated in each lesson are most amply developed by several delightful passages of connected discourse. The passage illustrating the use of the imperfect contains 175 verbs in that tense, most ingeniously arranged. Some may criticize the passages as being too facetious, but I doubt if the student for whom the book is intended will share this opinion.

The introduction contains some excellent phonetic material of practical value. Unfortunately the phonetic symbols, therein explained and so useful as guides to pronunciation, are not seen again until the vocabulary is reached at the end of the book.

The book should be found a most practical text for the teaching of reading and grammar, but this very advantage in college teaching, will, I fear, preclude the possibility of any great popularity in high schools, especially as the lessons are rather long and the material too heavy for such immature minds.

ARTHUR G. BOVEE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Principles of Secondary Education. Vol. I. By CHARLES DEGARMO. New York: Macmillan, 1913. Pp. xiii+338. \$1.25.

This book is a new edition of *The Studies*. The old edition is expanded by Part I, "The Basic Ideals of Educational Progress." The first part, two-fifths of the whole, comprises six chapters on the social, political, and economic demands for general and vocational education. These demands are discussed under the following captions, "Prosperity and Education," "Health," "Political Democracy and General Education," "Economic Democracy and Special Education," "Race Improvement: Eugenics and Euthenics," and "A Socialized Individual in an Individualized Society." The argument to this part follows.

In chap. i the argument is that progress and prosperity depend on a social surplus or pleasure economy. Social surplus is possible through an adequate income. The educational means then to promote progress is training for economic efficiency. Chap. ii: The health necessary to liberate surplus energy may be had by developing the efficient individual through personal and

public hygiene. Chaps. iii-iv: Political democracy presupposes insight and efficiency in the functions of citizenship. General education is required for this purpose; however, political democracy and economic equality are so intimately bound up, that, to secure the former, provision must be made to insure the latter, through vocational education. Chap. v: Euthenics endeavors to eliminate the sources of degeneration, and nurture the new and fresh. Eugenics has its share in race improvement in denying parenthood to the unfit. The tuberculous, epileptic, feeble-minded, insane, and criminal should be sterilized. Chap. vi: The individual must be socialized. Working alone, he is a pigmy, co-operating he may be a giant. The social group must be individualized. It must not be an end in itself, but a benefit to each of its members. The social group often conspires to undermine and exploit the general public and rival groups. To correct this, society as a whole should fix the responsibility of the social group, so that it, or individuals in the group, may not hide behind the organization to offend.

Part II, "The Studies," has to do with (a) the bases for the selection of the studies which make up the curricula; (b) a classification of the studies into significant groups; (c) the function and worth of the studies; (d) finally a chapter on the organization and administration of the studies and courses. In this chapter special emphasis is laid on the twofold aspect of instruction, i.e., the acquisition of knowledge and the practice of it to the point of efficiency in use.

The thing of most value in this book is the broad view presented in the impartial treatment of the function and worth of the studies and study groups. The obvious limitation in a philosophic handling of this sort of material is the necessity of making many positive statements of debatable issues. The chapters on "The Basic Ideals" are fundamental to an understanding of secondary problems, but lose some force in presentation because they are entirely disparate. The two chapters on general education for political democracy versus special education for economic democracy are a splendid treatment of the pros and cons of cultural and vocational education. Eugenics and euthenics are treated in such a way that supporters of both the environment and heredity theories of race improvement are given their sop in an unusually sane and valuable chapter for the teacher.

D. W. HORTON

MISHAWAKA, IND.

Elementary Experimental Chemistry. By F. E. WATSON, B.Sc. (Lond.), F.C.S., Head of the Chemical Department, The Polytechnic, London. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911. Pp. vi+140.

For a book published in England, this shows a remarkable reaction from the heuristic method of teaching elementary chemistry. The results expected are deliberately foretold, and we find paragraphs with such headings as, "To

show that the red calx of mercury contains mercury and a gas," "To show that oxygen is heavier than air"; and detailed instructions such as, "Show that they [crystals] are easily soluble in water producing a solution acid to litmus," "Result [of quantitative work] should be as given at the beginning of this experiment." In some quarters, such attempts to prevent the pupil from finding things out for himself by careful observation are considered criminal.

But the aims of a polytechnic are not identical with those of a secondary school, and it is true that the purely demonstration method imparts a maximum of technological knowledge with a minimum of effort on the part of the student. The influence of the author's London B.Sc. examination, also, doubtless persists, for the fact-cramming demonstration method is a time-saver, in that it devotes no time to the endeavor to develop the student's powers of observation and reasoning, which, in examinations, are of little marketable value.

One is glad to be able to say that the 78 illustrations, from photographs, are excellent.

ALAN W. C. MENZIES

OBERLIN, OHIO

Culture, Discipline and Democracy. A. DUNCAN YOCUM. Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co., 1913. Pp. vii+320.

This is one of the comparatively few books that have appeared within the last decade that is saturated from beginning to end with an educational philosophy. Moreover the philosophy is sane. The great issues underlying most of our present controversies, rather than the controversies themselves, are related into a complete educational scheme. Although the book is essentially a philosophical treatment of the principles of education, the author shows that he is sympathetic with modern experimental work by outlining many problems for investigation.

The underlying thesis of the book is an analysis of self-activity into its various aspects and the evaluation of each in terms of relative worth. Dr. Yocum contends that the end of education is not knowledge, information, or methods of work, but activity directed into useful channels. Consequently relative worth supplies the only rational basis for estimating the value of culture and of discipline, for determining modifications in the course of study, and for varying the modes of instructions.

Dr. Yocum outlines his theory as follows: "For from the standpoint of culture and discipline as distinct from democracy, I have been forced to see that for the majority of individuals who do not continue to lead the life of academic specialists, no discipline can be lasting or culture continuing which is not closely related to everyday life. And to an education which is democratic only in opportunity, I have gradually come to add education which is democratic, on the one hand, in its ideals, its subject-matter, its organization and its method, and on the other, in compulsion which demands not only that each individual shall have through compulsory school attendance the rudi-

ments of academic knowledge, but, through compulsion of repetition, every detail of culture and discipline essential to usefulness to the community and the state."

The appendix contains a valuable list of references for those who are interested in educational theory. The author's analytical index is usually complete; it might be taken as a model.

LOTUS D. COFFMAN

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

Causes and Effects in American History. By EDWIN W. MORSE. New York: Scribner, 1912. Pp. viii+289.

The title of Mr. Morse's book leads one to expect a philosophical essay on the principles that underlie our national development, or at least a disquisition on the spirit of our institutions. Instead, the reviewer has found only the narrative of the leading events of our history from the days of Eric the Red to Roosevelt, retold in pleasing style and with substantial accuracy, but without a shadow of justification of the promise of the preface to "ignore details" and deal "not so much with facts as with causes and effects—with the large currents of thought, feeling, and action which from generation to generation, especially through the economic and intellectual influences of each period, have modified and shaped the doctrines of the American people." A comparison of almost any chapter of Mr. Morse's little book with a corresponding chapter in one of our better textbooks in American history will convince the reader that one account might be substituted for the other without serious injury to the unity of the work.

Compared with the failure of the book to live up to the promise of the title and the assurances of the preface the faults in the text itself are insignificant. It is perhaps a bootless task to sift out each little error that has crept into the pages of a book on history, and call the task a review. But it is also true that slips in fact and obscurities in statement assume greater proportion as they are the less atoned for by some general and striking excellence of the work. In the first fifty pages of Mr. Morse's book we find the following errors: the date of Drake's voyage is given 1570-80 (p. 13); Philadelphia is settled in 1682 on p. 28 and in 1683 on p. 31; Quebec is founded in 1609 (p. 36); the year 1688 is given both for the accession of William III to the English throne (p. 47) and for the outbreak of the war between England and France (p. 43); the emigrants to Virginia after Charles I's execution consisted of "thousands of men of the best blood in royalist circles in England" (p. 26); eighty years after the Cabots' voyages (i.e., about 1577) "comparative quiet had followed the turmoil of the Reformation" and "the power of Spain was on the decline" (p. 10). There is some obscurity, too, in such a statement as that (on p. 7) "in 1492 Spain had superseded Portugal in maritime as in other affairs," and in the discussion of the effect of the Iroquois-Dutch alliance (p. 32) before the description of the event which brought it about (pp. 36, 37).

With the wealth of economic, social, industrial, educational, commercial, as well as political, data that are at hand, the field is ripe for a study of causes and effects in American history, and the scholar who shall give us such a work will contribute a very valuable chapter to our historical literature.

DAVID L. MUZZEY

BARNARD COLLEGE

A Guide for the Study of Animals. By a Committee from the Biology Round Table of the Chicago High Schools: WORRALLO WHITNEY, FREDERIC C. LUCAS, HAROLD B. SHINN, and MABEL E. SMALLWOOD. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. ix+197. \$0.50.

This is not a textbook in zoölogy, but a guide for study. It is not merely a laboratory guide, but it gives methods of field and library work. It emphasizes neither morphology, nor physiology, nor ecology, nor the economic importance of animals. It is an all-round book, and interesting in every part.

Chap. i suggests introductory studies of living animals. Its purpose is "to arouse an active, attentive interest on the part of the pupil in various forms of animal life which may be at hand, reminding him of what and how various creatures eat, how they breathe, how they get ideas of the world, how they get about, and perhaps how they succeed where others fail." Seventeen insects (in either the larval or adult form) are suggested for study. These studies are not dependent on one another. Any of them may be omitted if there is not time for all. The suggestions on "getting acquainted with the library" are excellent.

Chap. ii is also on insects. It includes field studies, a key, a general review, and a library exercise.

Chap. iii is entitled "The Connection between Structure and Function." The animal forms studied are protozoa, sponges, coelenterates, and worms. The spirit of the chapter is unique. It is unlike the old-fashioned study of morphology and physiology. The student is directed to watch and see what the animal does, and then question by means of what structure the work of the animal is accomplished.

The classic crayfish is the subject of chap. iv, "Adaptation to Surroundings." The spirit of this chapter is refreshing. It is a new study of an old animal.

Chap. v, "Adaptations for Protection from Enemies," (A) the exo-skeleton, (B) protective coloration, (C) animal associations, (D) protective habits and powers, (E) defensive structures, (F) thesis.

Chap. vi, "Vertebrates." This chapter is very interesting. Studies are made of the following forms: (1) fish and primitive chordates, (2) amphibia (the frog is the type; comparative study of other amphibia), (3) reptiles (snake, Florida lizard, and turtle), (4) birds (pigeon; other birds in field; migration), (5) mammals (several rodents, carnivores, and ungulates).

Chap. vii, "Adaptations for the Preservation of the Species," (A) methods of reproduction, (B) development, (C) protection and care of young, (D) review and library exercise. All that is here is good. The only sin is one of omission. There is nothing satisfactory on vertebrate reproduction. There is work on reproduction of protozoa, on sexual reproduction of coelenterates and echinoderms. There is a morphological study of the hen's egg—the shell, membranes, albumen, yolk, chalazae, and germ spot; but not a suggestion of how eggs are formed in the ovary of the hen

or where or how they are fertilized. There is an exercise on the development of the hen's egg, and the use of the incubator is suggested so that the hatching of the chickens may be observed. There is no suggestion of how mammals reproduce. No word of criticism is too severe for such an omission.

The last chapter (viii) is on poultry. Seven groups or classes of chickens are described, and their relative values discussed.

M. P. BLOUNT

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL
CHICAGO

Cicero, Seven Orations: With Selections from the Letters, De senectute, and Sallust's Bellum Catilinae. Edited by WALTER B. GUNNISON and WALTER S. HARLEY. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1912. Pp. xlii+501.

The general arrangement of the book is that which was followed in the Caesar text which preceded it—that is, sufficient grammar has been furnished for the full explanation of the text, with careful references to all the standard grammars for fuller explanation. This is followed also by exercises in prose composition giving as much as usually can be done during the year by an ordinary class. A very careful effort has been made to present the essential grammatical points of the author and the essential characteristics of his style.

The text comprises the six orations commonly read in schools with the ordinary form of annotation for preparation outside the class, the *Pro Marcello*, and the other selections from Cicero and Sallust with brief footnotes, chiefly translation, for use in translation at sight.

The purpose of the edition, according to the citation above from the Preface, is that "sufficient grammar has been furnished for the full explanation of the text." If that is true, what is the advantage of giving "references to all the standard grammars for fuller explanation"? When analyzed, this means that the present book contains all in the way of grammar that the pupil needs, but references are given to the standard grammars in case he wants more information than he needs. Surely one system or the other is unnecessary. But the repetition goes even beyond this, for it frequently happens that the grammatical explanation of the text is given in the notes, together with references to the grammatical sections in the book and also to the standard grammars. I believe it is absolutely wrong, in the interest of the ultimate salvation of the pupil, to include an abbreviated grammar with the text. But that is a general question into which I shall not enter at present. I might add that the grammatical sections are boiled down to a minimum, but admirably done, and if I believed in the principle at all I should laud this highly.

The other feature of the book that is specially noticeable is the inclusion of exercises in prose composition. These are excellently worked out, and will give satisfaction to those who have been disturbed by the trend of composition

books of recent years. Each exercise is intended to illustrate some principle of syntax, and is preceded by grammatical references on each division of the topic. The lessons are divided into two parts, the first containing isolated sentences, and the second made up of a continuous passage. The syntax and vocabulary of both are based on chapters of the text. It is syntax, systematized syntax, and that alone that the pupil needs, and a thorough knowledge of syntax is what every college teacher desires. The recent method of continuous prose and haphazard treatment of syntax by way of composition has proved a lamentable failure.

An outstanding feature of the book is the large number of illustrations; there are about one hundred of them, scattered everywhere through introduction, text, and notes. They are well chosen, and cannot fail to prove both entertaining and instructive to the user. It seems a pity that an old picture of the Forum was inserted, labeled "as it is today." Exception might be taken to one or two others, but in general they are excellent.

In summing up my impression of the book, I should say that if the sections on grammar were omitted, and the inaccuracies and obscurities removed, especially from the introduction, the book would deserve much praise by reason of its general plan and some interesting features.

R. W. HUSBAND

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

A Practical Guide to a Scientific Study of the German Vocabulary. By AUGUST PREHN. Oxford University Press, 1912. Pp. xi+257. \$0.75.

It is gratifying to read in the preface of this book the reasons that impelled the author to produce this *Guide to a Scientific Study of the German Vocabulary*. The following excerpts will best convey an idea of the author's position. He says: "In the present manner of teaching the vocabulary of the German language much time and energy are wasted. This waste is due chiefly to a general lack of system in the traditional method of teaching a vocabulary. . . . After pupils have received instruction for two or three years, they are unable to read at sight an easy German book, and neither they nor their teachers have cause to remember with pleasure these years of toil. . . . In preparing this book the author has been guided by the following beliefs: (1) that the vocabulary of the German language may easily be grasped by ordinary minds, (2) that acquiring a vocabulary is the most important feature in learning the language, (3) that grammar is a subordinate part of the work, (4) that the vocabulary and the grammar of a language should be acquired simultaneously, (5) that the grammar ought to be used as an aid in securing correctness."

To remedy the defects alluded to, the author presents an organization of the vocabulary that is to launch the pupil easily but rapidly into the language. The lists of words comprising the book are given in four chapters under the

following headings: (i) "Self-explanatory German Words and Their Derivations"; (ii) "German Words Which Can Be Made Self-explanatory by the Substitution of Consonants or Vowels"; (iii) "Derivatives"; (iv) "Word-Groups." The method advocated in connection with the use of this material is original and unique and the results claimed for it would certainly warrant its use—at least for those who wish to acquire a reading knowledge of German only.

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

LYDIA M. SCHMIDT

Principles of Educational Practice. By PAUL KLAPPER. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912. Pp. 485.

Part I includes a single introductory chapter on "The Meaning and Function of Education." In Part II, Education as Physiological Adjustment, there are four chapters; in Part III, Education as Sociological Adjustment, four chapters, and in Part IV, Education as Mental Adjustment, a total of sixteen chapters grouped into five which relate to instinct, seven to the intellectual functions, one to emotion, and three to the volitional aspect of mind.

After stating and briefly analyzing four of the relatively recent and much-discussed conceptions of educational aim and function the author adopts a fifth which is equally prominent—education as adjustment of the individual person to his environment; and explains that the manifold relationships which the individual establishes in his efforts to bring about a better adjustment between himself and his surroundings may be satisfactorily comprehended under (1) physical, (2) mental, and (3) moral activities and relationships. Environment is quite simply analyzed as physical and social, and a person's adjustment to both aspects is accomplished by means of his mind. In Parts II and III, therefore, one might expect the discussion to emphasize the things to which education is to adjust the child, or the things between which and the child education is to effect an adjustment, while in the fourth part the emphasis would be upon the mental processes by which the aim is accomplished. Yet so sharp a distinction as this does not appear, because the author so fully appreciates the vital connection between the educative process and the two aspects of the environment already noted that he happily involves each most intimately in his discussion of the other throughout the volume.

What seems likely to strike the reader of the volume as a most excellent general characteristic is that while the topics discussed are those which always appear in books on principles of education, the discussions themselves present an enlightening and delightful intimacy between the simple, clear statements of educational organization and teaching, and a wealth of real, varied, and yet familiar, concrete illustrative examples of the ways in which current procedure violates the principles, and the ways in which practice might be guided by them.

Dr. Klapper's book conveys the impression that he must be a good teacher; and the book itself will certainly be stimulating and useful, not only to college students of the principles of educational practice but to their teachers as well.

H. C. DORCAS

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

Bookkeeping, Introductory Course. By GEORGE W. MINER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1914. Pp. 126. \$0.90.

This is an exact duplicate of the first 126 pages of the *Complete Course in Bookkeeping* by the same author. It develops the fundamental principles of bookkeeping and presents four sets, using journal and ledger in the first two, and journal, ledger, sales-purchase, and cash-books in the last two. There are supplementary exercises and reviews with each set.

The presentation of principles is clear and easily understood. The four sets and supplementary exercises furnish drill in the fundamentals of bookkeeping. The text is certainly one of the best on the market.

GEORGE A. BEERS

LAKE HIGH SCHOOL
CHICAGO

Outlines of Economics, Developed in a Series of Problems. By Members of the Department of Political Economy of the University of Chicago. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 160. \$1.00, postage extra (weight 26 oz.).

So far as the reviewer knows, this is the first collection of economic problems published for general use in this country since 1883 when Sumner's *Problems in Political Economy* appeared. That work consisted of about four hundred exercises classified under a dozen headings. The present book is also a collection of exercises but it is much more—an *Outlines of Economics*. Of the 144 pages of the book proper more than a fourth is devoted to analysis and brief exposition of the various topics. Much careful thought has evidently been given to the making of these analyses and the teacher will find them helpful and suggestive. In fact the book will likely find its greatest use among teachers rather than students. When put in the hands of students it is not expected that it will displace the usual textbook. While these problems may not often be answered with the exactness and certainty of questions in mathematics and physics, they serve to make economic doctrine more definite in the mind of the learner and to give that grasp and mastery of theory which can come only with its application. For example the question, "Suppose a sudden doubling of the amounts of all kinds of goods (by miracle, if you choose). Would values be affected?" (p. 54), though not drawn from "the familiar events of economic life," is admirably fitted to bring out the part played by marginal utility in the determination of value and also the fact of different

elasticities of demand. That the method of economic problems is not more used is not due so much to a lack of its appreciation by teachers as to the limitation of time and of assistants under which most instructors labor.

Teachers of economics have been placed under a debt of obligation to the authors—Leon C. Marshall, Chester W. Wright, and James A. Field, both for the *Outlines*, and for the accompanying sourcebook, *Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics*, which appeared in the fall of 1913.

EMORY COLLEGE
OXFORD, GA.

EDGAR H. JOHNSON

A Handbook of the People's Health. By WALTER MOORE COLEMAN.
New York: Macmillan, 1913. Pp. xi+307. \$0.70.

This book is the sixth in the "Practical Hygiene Series" published by the company for the author, and is designed to serve as "a textbook on sanitation and hygiene for the use of schools." The table of contents indicates that the following wide range of topics is discussed, "The Need of Public Health," "Fresh Air and the Prevention of Disease," "The Prevention of Disease by Pure Water," "Clean Milk and the Prevention of Disease," "Pure Food and Pure Food Laws," "Food Values and Economy in Food," "The Prevention of Infection; Human Carriers," "The Prevention of Infection; Insect Carriers," "Hygiene of Work and Play," "Mental Hygiene," "A Sanitary Home," "School Sanitation," "The Public Health Department," "Health and City Life," "Rural Sanitation," "Industrial Hygiene," "A Sound Body Conquers Disease." To all this is added in an appendix an illustrated chapter on "Prevention of Accidents; Exercises for Practice in First Aid."

There are undoubtedly many usable chapters which the rather sensational illustrations may assist in appealing to interested readers, while the style of presentation is avowedly a departure from the usual textbook form of blocking off topics and subdivisions. Nevertheless the sympathetic critic experiences no little difficulty in collating naturally correlated items of interest and information, and it is highly conceivable that school pupils may experience equally baffling results on their first introduction to the subject-matter; all of which, be it added by way of parenthesis, raises the observation that the ages of students for which it is adapted are not specified.

However, the ideal as forecast by the author is good, the object aimed at is worthy, and in this form the book offers a valuable introduction to a wide range of topics that cannot fail to contribute to better citizenship and more sanitary homes.

D. P. MACMILLAN

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD-STUDY
CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

- Abel, Mary Hinman. Duty of the home and school clubs in helping the home economics courses in high schools. *J. of Home Econ.* 6:114-20. (Ap. '14.)
- Andress, J. Mace. The teaching of hygiene below the high school. II. *El. School T.* 14:325-30. (Mr. '14.)
- . The teaching of hygiene below the high school. III. *El. School T.* 14:393-99. (Ap. '14.)
- Ayres, Leonard P. Some factors affecting industrial education. *El. School T.* 14:313-18. (Mr. '14.)
- Bachman, Frank P. The mission of the high school in the community. *Educa.* 34:405-15. (Mr. '14.)
- Bagley, W. C. Fundamental distinctions between vocational and liberal education. *J. of Educa. (Bost.)* 79:339-43. (26 Mr. '14.)
- Ballard, Anna Woods. Efficient teaching of a modern language. *Educa. R.* 47:379-90. (Ap. '14.)
- Bawden, William T. The administration of state aid for vocational education. *Voca. Educa.* 3:287-94. (Mr. '14.)
- Boyd, William. The development of a child's vocabulary. *Pedagog. Sem.* 21:95-124. (Mr. '14.)
- Brown, H. A. The reorganization of secondary education in New Hampshire. I. *School R.* 22:145-56. (Mr. '14.)
- . The reorganization of secondary education in New Hampshire. II. *School R.* 22:235-48. (Ap. '14.)
- Bush, Arthur Dermont. The vocabulary of a three-year-old girl. *Pedagog. Sem.* 21:125-42. (Mr. '14.)
- Butler, Nicholas Murray. The freshman year. *Educa. R.* 47:406-10. (Ap. '14.)
- Caldwell, Otis W. Home economics and rural extension. *J. of Home Econ.* 6:99-109. (Ap. '14.)
- Campbell, Everett Eveleth. A study of retardation and class standing on the basis of home language used by pupils. *El. School T.* 14:331-47. (Mr. '14.)
- Catlin, Claiborne. Incurribility due to mismanagement and misunderstanding. *Psychol. Clinic* 8:12-24. (Mr. '14.)
- Cattell, J. McKeen. Democracy in university administration. *Science* 39:491-96. (3 Ap. '14.)

- Clark, Lotta A. Pageantry in America. *English J.* 3:146-53. (Mr. '14.)
- Collins, Joseph V. Weakness in American education. *Educa. R.* 47:391-405. (Ap. '14.)
- Cope, Ellen. Home economics. *Pedagog. Sem.* 21:1-27. (Mr. '14.)
- Courtis, S. A. Standard tests in English. *El. School T.* 14:374-92. (Ap. '14.)
- Edwards, Charles Lincoln. Nature play. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 84:330-44. (Ap. '14.)
- Elliott, Edward C. State school surveys. *Am. School Bd. J.* 48:9-10, 62. (Mr. '14.)
- Fauver, Edwin. A suggestion for making required physical training of greater value to the college graduate. *Am. Phys. Educa. R.* 19:200-203. (Mr. '14.)
- Fish, Susan Anderson. What should pupils know in English when they enter the high school? *English J.* 3:166-75. (Mr. '14.)
- Foster, William Trufant. Agencies, methods, materials, and ideals of sex education. *School R.* 22:256-61. (Ap. '14.)
- Gilbert, I. B. Evening classes in the Union High School. *Voca. Educa.* 3:260-70. (Mr. '14.)
- Giles, F. M. Vocational guidance in high school. *School R.* 22:227-34. (Ap. '14.)
- Goodwin, Frank P. Vocational guidance in Cincinnati. *Voca. Educa.* 3:249-59. (Mr. '14.)
- Graham, J. W. A measure of progress in the mechanical operations of arithmetic. *El. School T.* 14:348-49. (Mr. '14.)
- Gray, Mason D. Co-ordinating Latin with other high-school subjects. *School R.* 22:217-26. (Ap. '14.)
- Grinstead, Wren Jones. Reading for teachers of sex hygiene. *School R.* 22:249-55. (Ap. '14.)
- Hahn, H. H., and Thorndike, E. L. Some results of practice in addition under school conditions. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 5:65-85. (Fe. '14.)
- Hamilton, A. E. Eugenics. *Pedagog. Sem.* 21:28-61. (Mr. '14.)
- Hill, Patty Smith, ed. Experimental studies in kindergarten theory and practice. *Teach. Coll. Rec.* 15:1-70. (Ja. '14.)
- Hilles, Charles D. What I am trying to do. *World's Work* 27:642-49. (Ap. '14.)
- Hummel, W. G. A new discovery by an agricultural college. *R. of Rs.* 49:440. (Ap. '14.)
- Humphries, Florence Y. The case of the high schools. *Educa. R.* 47:366-78. (Ap. '14.)
- Is the Montessori school based upon a misconception of the child mind? *Cur. Opinion* 56:284-85. (Ap. '14.)
- (A) Jewish University in Jerusalem. *Lit. D.* 48:703-4. (28 Mr. '14.)

